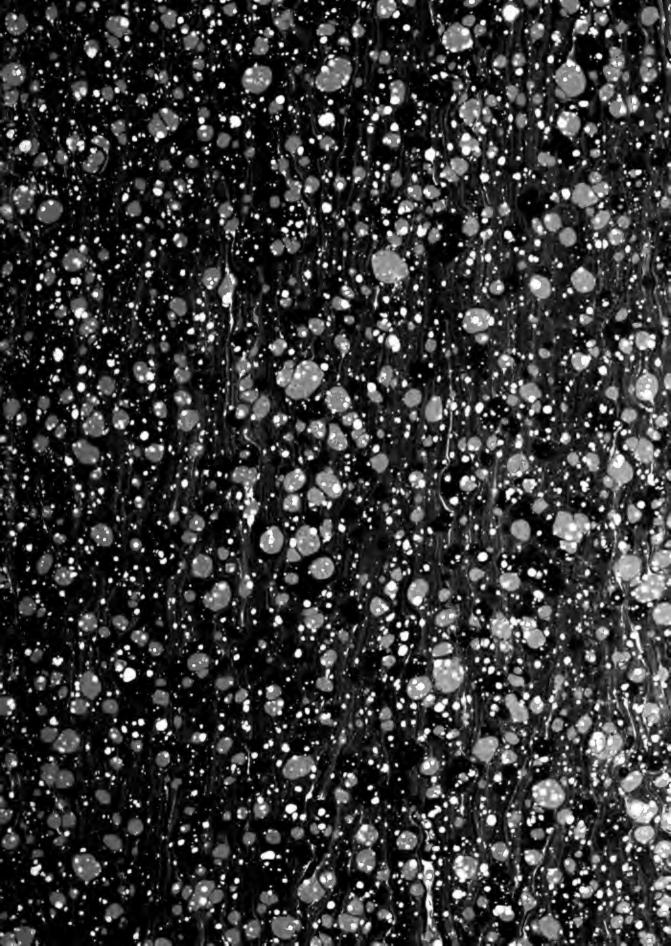
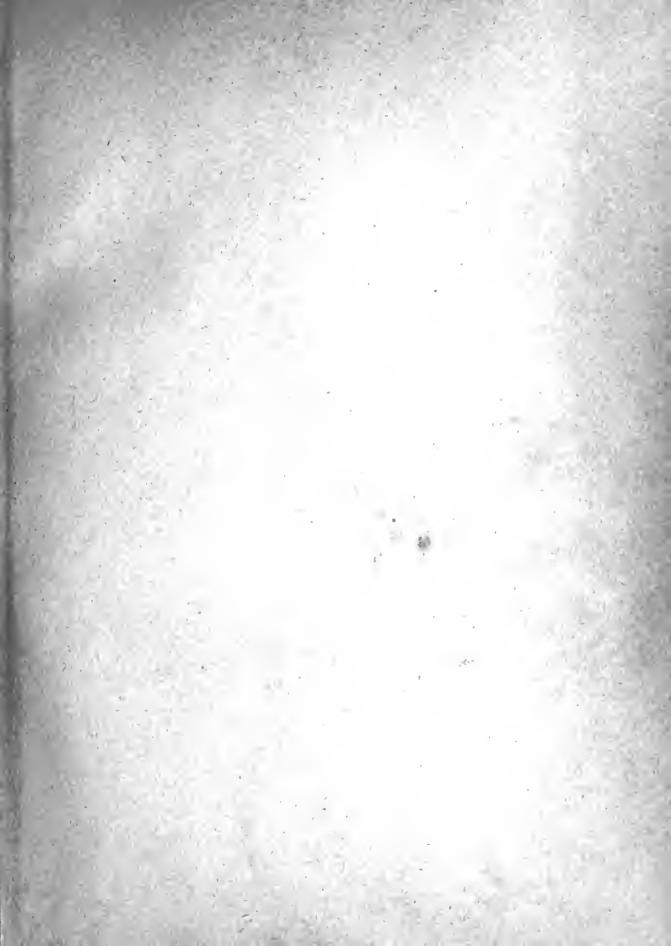


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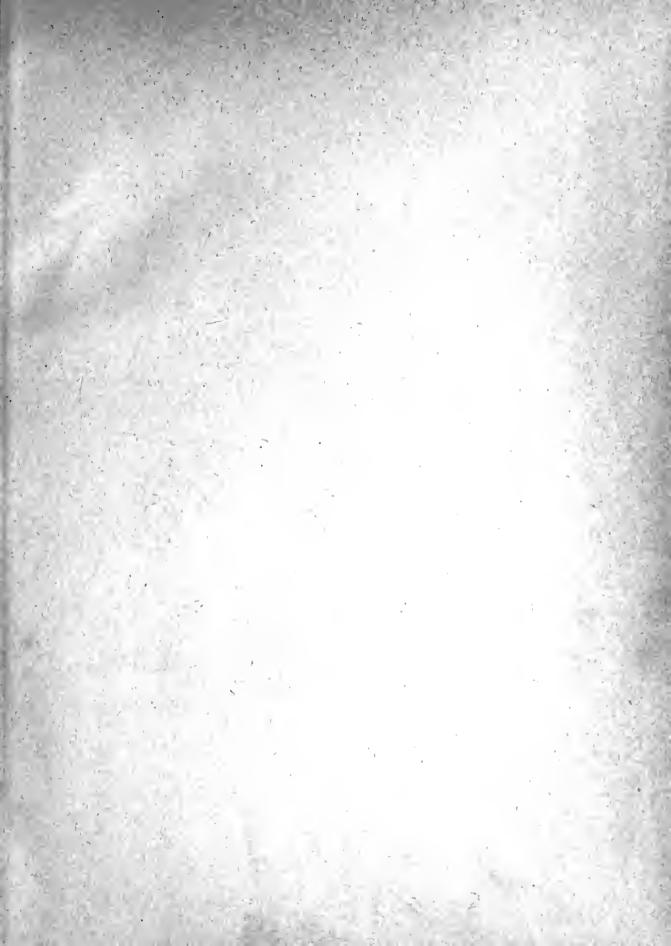




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SCENE ON THE MEDITERRANEAN. (TIME OF THE CRUSADES.)

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OF

# THE WORLD'S

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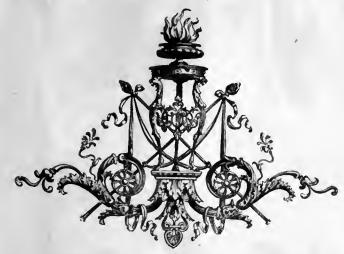
FROM THE EARLIEST DATES TO THE PRESENT TIME.

BY

### CHARLOTTE M. YONGE,

Author of "The Heir of Redcliff," "Book of Golden Deeds," etc.

[THE HISTORY OF AMERICA, BY JOHN A. DOYLE.]



"Segnius irritant animum demissa per aures, quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus."

"Things seen by the trustworthy eye, more deeply impress the mind than those which are merely heard"

VOL. II.

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### CHAPTER XIII.

LOUIS VII., THE YOUNG.

A.D. 1037-1180.

HE "Young" is an odd historical name for a king who reigned a good many years; but he was called so at first because he was only eighteen years old when he came to the throne, and the name clung to him because there was always something young and simple about his character.

The first great event of his reign was that St. Bernard stirred Europe once more to a crusade to help the Christians in Palestine, who were hard pressed by the Mohammedans.

At Vezelay there was a great assembly of bishops and clergy, knights and nobles; and St. Bernard preached to them so eagerly, that soon all were fastening crosses to their arms, and tearing up mantles and robes because enough crosses had not been made beforehand for the numbers who took them. The young king and his beautiful queen, Eleanor of Aquitaine, vowed to make the crusade too, and set out with a great army of fighting men, and, besides them, of pilgrims, monks, women, and children. The queen was very beautiful and very vain; and though she called herself a pilgrim, she had no notion of denying herself, so she carried all her fine robes and rich hangings, her ladies, waiting maids, minstrels, and jesters. The French had no ships to take them direct to the Holy Land, but had to go by land all the way, along the shore of Asia Minor. Numbers of the poor pilgrims sank down and perished by the way; and just as they had passed the city of Laodicea, the Mohammedan army came down on the rearguard in a narrow valley, and began to make a great slaughter. The king himself had sometimes to get behind a tree, sometimes behind a rock; and the whole army would have been cut off, had not a poor knight named Gilbert, whom no one had thought much of, come forward, took the lead, and helped the remains of the rear-guard to struggle out of the valley. Through all the rest of the march, Gilbert really led the army; and yet after this he never is heard of again, and never seems to have looked for any reward.

When Palestine was reached at last, there were not ten thousand left out of the four hundred thousand who had set out from home; and the gay queen's zeal was quite spent; and while the king was praying at the Holy Sepulchre, and trying to fight for it, she was amusing herself with all the lively youths she could get round her. She despised her good, pious husband, and said he was more like a monk than a king; and as soon as they returned from this unhappy crusade, they tried to find some excuse for breaking their marriage.

The Pope allowed the king to rid himself of this wicked lady, and let them both marry again. He married Constance of Castille, and Eleanor took for her husband the young English king, Henry II., and brought him

all her great possessions.

The very thing had come to pass that the King of France fearednamely, that the Dukes of Normandy should get more powerful than he was. For Henry II. was at once King of England and Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou, and his wife was Duchess of Aquitaine and Guienne; and, as time went on, Henry betrothed his little son Geoffrey to Constance, the orphan girl who was heiress to Brittany, and undertook to rule her lands for her; so that the lands over which Louis had any real power were a sort of little island within the great sea of the possessions of the English king. Besides, Henry was a much cleverer man than Louis, and always got the better of him in their treaties. The Kings of France and Dukes of Normandy always met at Gisors, on their border, under an enormous elm-tree, so large that three hundred horsemen could find shelter under the branches; and these meetings never went on well for Louis. He was obliged to promise that his two daughters, Margaret and Alice, should marry Henry's two sons, Henry and Richard, and to give them to Henry to be brought up. When Henry had his great dispute with Archbishop Becket, about the question whether clergymen were subject to the law of the land, Becket fled to France. Louis loved and respected him very much, gave him shelter in an abbey, and tried hard to make peace between him and Henry, but never could succeed, till, after six years, Henry pretended to be reconciled, and Becket went home in the year 1170. He was murdered very soon after, as you will read in the history of England.

Louis must have been very much surprised when his own former wife, Queen Eleanor, came disguised as a man with her three eldest sons to his court, making great complaints of Henry for keeping the government of their provinces in his own hands. He must have thought it only what they and he both deserved, and he gave them what help he could; but Henry was a great deal more strong and crafty than any of them, and soon put them down. Eleanor was thrown into prison, and kept there as long as she lived. She richly deserved it; but her sons and the people of Aquitaine did not think so. Those people of Aquitaine were a curious race—they were very courtly, though not very good; and they thought more of music, poetry, and love-making than of anything else, though they were brave men too. Every knight was expected to be able to write verses and sing them,

and to be able to hold an argument in the courts of love. The best poets among them were called troubadours; and Eleanor herself, and her two sons, Richard and Geoffrey, could compose songs and sing them. All were as much beloved in Aquitaine as Henry was hated; and the troubadours did nothing but stir up the youths to fight with their father and set their mother free; but though they broke out many times, they could never prevail against him.

Louis VII. was married three times—to Eleanor of Aquitaine, to Constance of Castille, and to Alice of Champagne. These three queens had among them six daughters, but no son; and this was a great grief, since no woman had ever reigned in France, and it was believed that the old Salian Franks had a law against women reigning. At any rate, this grew to be the rule in France, and it is called the Salic law. However, the question had not to be settled this time, for at last a son was born to Louis; and in his joy he caused the babe to be christened Philip Dieu-donné, or God-given. The boy was the cleverest son who had sprung from the House of Paris for ages past; and while still quite young, cared for all that concerned his father and his kingdom, at an age when other boys care only for sports and games. When his father met the English king at the elm of Gisors, young Philip looked on and saw how Henry overreached and took advantage of Louis; and he was bitterly grieved and angered, and made up his mind that some day he would get back all that his father was losing.

However, in the midst of his plans, young Philip was one day out hunting in a forest with his father, when he missed his companions, lost his way, and wandered about all night. When he was found, he was so spent with hunger and cold that he had a bad illness, and was in great danger for some days. When he grew better, King Louis, in great joy, thought this precious life had been granted for the prayers of his old friend Thomas a Becket, and asked leave of Henry to come and give thanks at the archbishop's tomb at Canterbury. He came, and was welcomed as a friend and guest. He gave great gifts to the cathedral, and especially a beautiful ring, which became one of the great treasures of the place.

He had had his beloved son, though only fifteen, crowned, that France might have a king over her while he was away; and Philip was very soon the only king, for good, honest, simple-minded Louis the Young died very soon after his return from Canterbury, in the year 1180, nine years before the death of his great enemy, Henry II.



### CHAPTER XIV.

PHILIP II., AUGUSTUS.

A.D. 1180-1223.

HLIP the Gift of God is most commonly known in history as Philip Augustus. Why, is not quite plain; but as he became a very powerful King of France, it is most likely that one of the old names of the Western Emperors, who were all Cæsar Augustus, got applied to him.

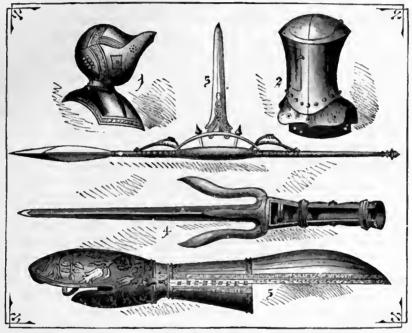
If his father had still been Louis the Young in his old age, Philip might in his youth have been called Philip the Old, for he was much older in skill and cunning at fifteen than his

father had been all his life. The whole history of his reign is of his endeavor to get the better of the Plantagenet kings of England. He so much hated the thought of what he had seen under the elm-tree of Gisors, that he cut it down; and though he hated King Henry and his sous all alike, he saw that the best way to do them harm was by pretending to be the friend of whichever was not king, and so helping on their quarrels. The eldest and the third sons, Henry and Geoffrey, were by this time dead, and Richard of the Lion-heart was the favorite of the Aquitaine troubadours.

by the great Saracen chief Saladin, and that Jerusalem had been conquered by the great Saracen chief Saladin, and that Jerusalem had been taken by him. There was great lamentation, and a fresh crusade was determined on by all the princes of Europe, the Emperor, the King of France, the King of England, and his sons. The Emperor, Frederick of the Red Beard, set off first, but he was lost by the way while bathing in a river in Asia Minor; and the two kings waited to arrange their affairs. Philip's way of doing this was to get Richard to his court, and to pretend to be so fond of him, that they both slept in the same bed, drank out of the same cup, and ate out of the same dish; but he was stirring up Richard—who needed it little—to demand his mother's freedom and the land of Aquitaine, and to rebel against his father, leading his brother John with him. This was the rebellion which broke the heart of Henry II. He died, and Richard went on his crusade as king.

It was the first crusade when the armies went by sea instead of by laud. Richard had his own fleet, but Philip was obliged to hire ships of the merchants of Genoa; and when the two fleets reached Sicily, they did not

venture to sail on till the winter was over, but waited till spring. Now that Richard was king, Philip no longer pretended to love him; and there were many disputes among the Crusaders. At last they sailed on to help the Christians, who were besieging Acre. Philip arrived first, and quickened the works; but still no great things were done till Richard arrived; and then Philip was vexed that every one talked so much more of the English king's brave doings than of himself. The heat of the climate soon made both kings fall sick; and when the city was taken, Philip's doctors declared



SARACEN WEAPONS.

that he must go home at once if he wished to recover. Most likely they were right; but he was glad to go, for he hoped to do Richard a great deal of harm in his absence. The Pope forbade any one to attack a Crusader's lands while he was away; but Philip could stir up Richard's subjects and his brother against him. And when, as you remember, Richard was made captive in Austria, on his way home, Philip even sent money to the Emperor of Germany to keep him a prisoner. At last, when the German princes had forced the Emperor to set him free, Philip sent word to John, in this short note, "Take care of yourself, for the devil is let loose."

But when, two years later, Richard of the Lion-heart was killed at Limoges, Philip became John's most bitter enemy, and the friend of the only other Plantagenet left, namely, Geoffrey's son Arthur, Duke of Brittany, who appealed to his suzerain, Philip, to make him Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou, as son of the elder brother. Philip called on John to give

up these lands; but John offered to make a peace by marrying his niece, Blanche, the daughter of his sister and the King of Castille, to Philip's son, Louis the Lion. Philip was in trouble himself at the time, and consented

to make peace.

Philip's trouble was by his own fault. His first wife, Isabel of Hainault, was dead, and he had thought to make friends with the King of Denmark by marrying his daughter Ingeborg. But the Danes were then very rough and untaught, and poor Ingeborg was a dull, clumsy, ignorant girl, not at all like a courtly lady. Philip took such a dislike to her that he sent her into a convent, and married the beautiful Agnes de Meranie, the daughter of the Duke of the Tyrol. But there was then ruling one of the mightiest Popes who ever lived, called Innocent III. He was determined not to let any one, however great, go on in sin unwarned; and he called on Philip to put Agnes away, and take back his only true wife. And when Philip would not, Innocent laid the kingdom under an interdict—that is, he forbade any service to go on in any church except in those of the monks and nuns, and there only with the doors shut against all outside. The whole nation was, as it were, cut off from God for their prince's sin. Philip tried to stand up against this dreadful sentence at first; but he found the people could not bear it, so he sent Agnes away, and took Ingeborg back. He was then absolved, and his kingdom went on prospering. When, in 1203, Arthur of Brittany perished in prison, Philip summoned John, as a vassal of France, to answer for the murder. The great vassals met, the trumpets sounded, and John was called on to appear; but as he did not come, he was sentenced to have forfeited his lands of the Normandy and Anjou, and Philip entered them with his army and took the castle, while John could not get men or money to come and stop him; and only the lands of old Eleanor of Aquitaine, who was still alive, remained to the English.

This forfeit made a great step in the power of the French kings, since not only had the English kings lost Normandy and Anjou, but these two great domains belonged to the French king as entirely as his County of He had no duke or count between him and the barons or cities. Philip's designs against the Plantagenets were favored by John's own crimes. The quarrel with the Pope that you have heard of, about the Archbishop of Canterbury, made Innocent III. invite Philip to go and conquer England,

but the fear of this brought John to make his peace with the Pope.

However, John's nephew, Otho of Brunswick, was emperor, and he too had quarrelled with the Pope, who wanted to make young Frederick of Sicily emperor. Philip took Frederick's part, and Otho marched against him into Flanders. All the French nobles had gathered round their king, and at Bouvines there was one of the greatest battles and victories that Freuch history tells of. Otho had to gallop away from the battle, and



PHILIP II. IN PROCESSION.



Philip said, "We shall see nothing more of him than his back." This great

battle was fought in the year 1214.

Very shortly after, Philip's eldest son, Louis, called the Lion, was invited to England by the barons, because they could no longer bear the horrible cruelties and wickednesses of John; and he would not keep Magna Charta, which he had signed. Louis went to England, and London was put into his hands; but when King John died, the barons liked better to have his little innocent son, Henry III., as their king, than to be joined on to France. So, after Louis's troops had been beaten by land and by sea, he came home and gave up the attempt.

But Philip Augustus certainly had the wish of his life fulfilled, for he had seen his foes of the House of Plantagenet humbled, and brought to bitter trouble, and he had taken to himself the chief of their great pos-

sessions.

He died in the year 1223, having lived in the reigns of four English kings, and done his utmost to injure them all. He was not a good man; but as he was brave and elever, and a good friend to the towns, the French were very proud of him.



### CHAPTER XV.

THE ALBIGENSES. A.D. 1190. LOUIS VIII., THE LION, 1228-1226.

OUIS the Lion had a very short reign, but most of his doings had been in his father's time; and they were passed over that you might hear, all in one, as it were, the history of Philip Augustus and his crafty dealings with the House of Plantagenet.

Now, we will go back and speak of Louis before he came to the throne, and of the people he chiefly fought with. You remember that the South of France, which had first been settled by the Romans, and had never been peopled by the

Franks, was much more full of learning and thinking than the northern part. The Langue doc was much more used for poetry and elegant speech than the Langue doui. But, somehow, among these people there rose up a heresy (that is, a false doctrine), which seems to have come to them from the East. It would not be well to tell you all about it, even if we could understand it; but one great point in it was that these people said

that the Power of Evil is as great and strong as the Power of Good, thus making Satan like another God, as some old Eastern pagans had thought. The evil ways of Christians strengthened the notions of these people, who were called Albigenses, from the town of Albi. Their southern cleverness saw what was amiss, and they made songs laughing at the clergy, and at the way they dealt with holy things, and often at the holy things themselves, till they led away a great many people after them, and even some of the great princes of the South, who began to feel as if the Albigenses were something specially belonging to themselves, and to the old culture of the Roman Provincia.

But the great Pope, Innocent III., could not allow all this country to fall away from the Church. While he was thinking what was to be done, two men offered themselves to him. One was a Spaniard, named Dominic, who wished to found an order of brethren to go forth, preach, teach, and bring back heretics; the other was an Italian, named Francis, who cared above all for holiness, and longed to be like our Lord, and wanted to draw together men within the Church to be more spiritual and less worldly, and give the enemy no cause to take offence at their faults. Both these good men were allowed to institute brotherhoods, orders not quite like the monks in the old convents, but still poorer. Their brethren were called friars, and went about preaching and hearing confessions, and helping men and women to lead holier lives—those of St. Francis in Christian places, those of St. Dominic wherever there was heresy. Dominic was further allowed to judge and punish with severe penances and captivity such as would not be convinced, and the inquiry into opinions which he and his friars made was called the Inquisition.

But the great dukes and counts in the south of France—in Provence, Toulouse, Foix, Albi, and many others—did not choose to have their people interfered with. They all spoke much the same language, and they were resolved, right or wrong, to hold together; and it is really one of the most difficult questions in the world whether it is well or ill to put down false teaching. The more people think and read, the more they doubt about persecution; and so these Provençal princes, being cleverer than their rough neighbors, were the less disposed to punish their subjects; but they were also less religious and less earnest, and Pope Innocent had no question but that they ought to be called to account. So he proclaimed a crusade against them, as if they had been Saracens, and made the leader of it Simon, Count de Montfort, a stern, hard, though pious old knight, the father of the Simon de Montfort who fought with Henry III. Pedro II., King of Aragon, joined the Albigenses, and there was a terrible war all over the south. In . the year 1213 a great battle was fought at Muret, in the County of Toulouse in which the Albigenses were beaten, and the King of Aragon was killed.

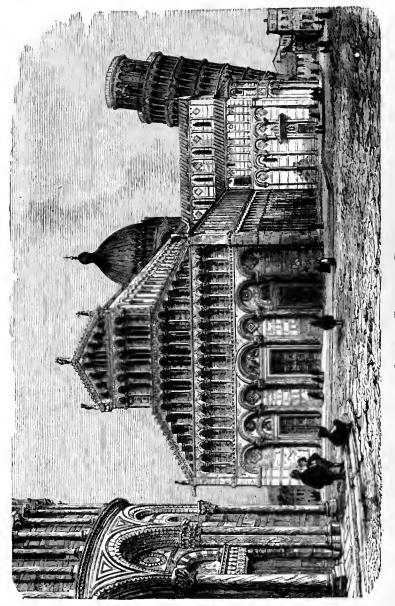
Those were cruel times, and the Crusaders treated their captives very savagely. The Count of Toulouse, Raymond, stood on against the Crusaders, and with his son, also named Raymond, fought hard; but the Pope declared them unworthy to rule, and granted Simon de Montfort all the lands he had conquered in the south of France. In the northern parts he was looked on as a saint, and when he went to do homage to the king, people ran to touch his horse and his clothes as something holy. Indeed, he was a sincerely good man; and though he did many things so cruel that we cannot tell you of them, it was all because he thought it was his duty. Louis the Lion aided him, and learnt the art of war during these battles; but when the Crusaders tried to take the city of Toulouse, the people, knowing how horribly they would be treated, held out against them; and at last, in 1217, the year of King John's death, one night, when Simon was attacking the walls, a woman threw down a heavy stone, which struck him on the head and killed him.

His eldest son, Amaury, was not such an able warrior, and the Albigenses began to get the better of the Crusaders, while Louis the Lion was away in England; but in the year 1223, when Philip died, and he became King of France, he was called upon by the Pope to begin the war again. He fought with all his might; but in spite of his title of the Lion, he was not as able a soldier as he was a brave man, and in the three years of his reign he did not much weaken the Albigenses, though he was at war with them all through his short reign. While he was passing through Auvergne, a sickness broke out in his army, he fell ill himself, and died in the year 1226.

His eldest son, Louis IX., was only eleven years old; but the queen, Blanche of Castille, his mother, was a very good and spirited woman, and managed the kingdom excellently. She sent troops, who gained such successes that at last Count Raymond of Toulouse was forced to make peace. and to give his only child into Blanche's hands to be brought up as a wife for her third son, Alfonso. The Count of Provence, who held from the Emperor, had four daughters, and no son, and these ladies were married in due time to the King of France and his brother Charles, and to the King of England and his brother Richard, and thus all that great country of the Languedoc was brought under the power and influence of the north. The Dominican friars and the Inquisition were put in authority everywhere, that the false doctrine of the Albigenses might be rooted out; and there was much of barbarous punishment, imprisonment, torture, and even burning of heretics. It was a cruel age, and no doubt terrible things were done; but that the punishments were savage does not make the faith of the Albigenses right.

It was a time when much thought was going on throughout Europe.

Pope Innocent III. had made the Church of Rome very powerful, and though no one who came after was as great as he was, his plans were followed out, and the King of France, who was always called the Eldest Son



of the Church, was one of the first to be reckoned on for carrying them out. They were often plans for mere earthly power more than spiritual, but all good men thought it their duty to aid them, and it was a time when there were many good men. The work of St. Bernard and the example of St.

LEANING TOWER OF PISA.

Francis were doing much to make the lives of men and women more pure and holy, and there was more learning and less roughness than in the last age. Everything that was then made was strangely beautiful too—castles, churches, and cities were in most graceful architecture; armor and dress were exquisite in color and shape, and the illuminations in the manuscripts were as lovely as hand could make them.



### CHAPTER XVI.

ST, LOUIS 1X.

A.D. 1226.

HE little king, Louis IX., who came to the throne in 1226, when he was only eleven years old, was happy in having a good and wise mother, Queen Blanche of Castille, who both brought him up carefully, and ruled his kingdom for him well and wisely.

She was sometimes a little too stern, and as he grew up she was jealous of his earing for anybody else. When he married Margaret of Provence, she did not like the young husband and wife to be very much together, for fear Louis

should be drawn off from graver matters; but on the whole she was an excellent mother and queen, and there have been very few kings in any country so good and just and holy as Louis was. He never seems in all his life to have done anything that he knew to be wrong, and he cared more for God's honor than for anything else. Sometimes such very pious kings forgot that they had any duty to their people, and did not make good rulers; but Louis knew that he could not do his duty properly to God if he did not do it to man, so he showed himself a wise, just prince, and good warrior. He was so much stronger and cleverer than the poor, foolish Henry III. of England, that his barons thought he could take away all Guyenne, which had been left to King John; but he said he would not do Henry had married his queen's sister, and their children an injustice. would be cousins, so he would not do what would lead to wars between them. But when Henry wanted him to give back Normandy and Anjou, he had the matter well looked into; and he decided that King John had justly forfeited them for murdering Arthur of Brittany, and so that he ought to keep them. So he was always sensible as well as just.

He was still a young man, when he had a very bad illness, and nearly died. In the midst of it, he made a vow that if he got well he would go to the Holy Land, and fight to set Christ's Sepulchre free from the Mohammedans. As soon as he grew better he renewed the vow, though it grieved all his people very much; but he left them to be governed by his mother, and as soon as he could get his army together, he set out on his crusade with his wife and his brothers.

As the Mohammedans who held the Holy Land came from Egypt, it was thought that the best way of fighting them would be to attack them in their own country. So Louis sailed for Egypt, and besieged and took Damietta; and there he left his queen, Margaret, while he marched on by the side of the Nile, hoping to meet the enemy. But it was a bad season, for the Nile was overflowing, and the whole country was one swamp, where the knights and horses could hardly move, and grievous sickness broke out. The king himself became very ill, but he and his men roused themselves when they found that a battle was near. It was fought at Mansoureh. The adversaries were not native Egyptians, but soldiers called Memlooks. They had been taken from their homes in early infancy, made Mohammedans, and bred up to nothing but war; and very terrible warriors they were, and quite as much feared by the Sultan and the Egyptians as by the enemy. However, the French feared nothing; they were only too foolhardy; and when the English Earl of Salisbury gave advice to be prudent and keep a guard at the camp, the king's brother Robert called out that he was afraid, and the earl answered in a passion that he should go as far among the enemy as Robert himself. So they all dashed in, and many others, and the Memlooks got between them and the camp, and cut them off and killed The king was so weak that he could hardly sit on his horse, but he tried to call his men together and save them; but it was all in vain, the Memlooks were all round them, and he was so faint that his knights took him off his horse, and laid him down with his head in a woman's lap, fearing each moment to see him die. He gave himself up as a prisoner, and lay day after day in a hut with two priests waiting on him. He respected them so much that he could not bear to let them do servants' work for him; and he was so patient and brave, that the Memlooks themselves said he was the best man they had ever seen, and wanted to make him Sultan of Egypt. At last it was settled that he should be set free, if he would pay a heavy ransom, and give up the city of Damietta, which he had taken. This was done, and afterward he embarked with his queen and the remains of his army, and went to the Holy Land; but there was a peace just then, and no fighting; and after he had fulfilled his vow of pilgrimage, he returned to France, but not to find his mother there, for she had died in his absence.

Fourteen most happy and good years followed his return. He was a most wise and valiant king in his own kingdom, and thoroughly just and upright. There was a great oak-tree near his palace of Vincennes, under which he used to sit, hearing the causes of the poor as well as the rich, and

doing justice to all.

He had a clear, good sense and judgment, that made him see the right thing to do. The Pope had a great quarrel with the Emperor Frederick II., and tried to make Louis take up arms against him, as his father had done against King John of England; but the good king saw that even the Pope's bidding would not make this right, and held back. He and Henry III. of England were very loving brothers-in-law; and during the barons' wars in England, Eleanor, the young wife of Edward, the heir of England, was left with his aunt, Queen Margaret of France. Bear in mind that Louis IX. and Henry III. and their two brothers, Charles, Count of Anjou, and Richard, Earl of Cornwall, had married the four daughters of the Count of Provence. The Earl of Cornwall was chosen to be King of the Romansthat is, next heir to the Western Empire-and when her three sisters were queens, the fourth sister, Beatrice, kept the County of Provence. said to have been unhappy because her sisters sat on thrones, when she only sat on a stool; but before long the Pope offered the kingdom of the two Sicilies to her husband, Charles of Anjou. It rightly belonged to the grandson of the Emperor Frederick, and Louis wished his brother to have nothing to do with it; but Charles was a false and ambitious man, though he pretended to be as religious as Louis; and with an army of Provençals he set out and gained the kingdom we now call Naples and Sicily. The young heir Conradin set off to try to regain his inheritance, but Charles defied him in battle, made him prisoner, and put him to death on the scaffold.

Louis had always intended to make another crusade, and Charles promised to join him in it, as well as Edward of England. All the North of Africa was held by the Moors, who were Mohammedans; but Louis had had letters that made him think that there was a chance of converting the Dey of Tunis to the Christian faith, and his brother Charles wished to show them the crusading army in hopes of alarming them, and getting power there. So Louis, with his army, landed in the Bay of Tunis, and encamped in the plains of Old Carthage to wait for King Charles and Edward of England; but the Moors were foes instead of friends. It was very hot and unwholesome, and deadly sickness broke out. The good king went about from one tent to another comforting and helping the sick, but he was soon laid low himself. He lay repeating Psalms, and dictating a beautiful letter of advice to his daughter, as he grew worse and worse; and at last, with the words, "O Jerusalem, Jerusalem!" on his tongue, he died in the year 1270, nor has there ever been such a king in France again, and few in any other

country. Charles of Sicily and Edward of England came three days later; and as soon as they could get together the poor, broken, sad and siek army, they sailed for Sicily, taking with them the poor young king, Philip, who was very ill himself, and could not go on with the crusade, so that Edward was obliged to go alone, as we all know. Louis and his youngest son, who had died a day or two before him, were buried at St. Denys', and he has ever since borne the well-deserved title of saint.



### CHAPTER XVII.

PHILIP III., THE HARDY; AND PHILIP IV., THE FAIR.

A.D. 1271-1284-1314.

C. LOUIS left three sons. The second, Robert, Count of Clermont, must be remembered, because three hundred years later his descendants, the House of Bourbon, came to the throne of France. The eldest son, Philip III., was a man who left very little mark in history, though he reigned thirteen years. The most remarkable thing that happened in his time was a great rising against his uncle, Charles of Anjou, in Sicily. The French and Provençal knights he had brought with him were proud, and rude in their behavior to the people of the country,

and oppressed them heavily. At last, on the Easter Monday of 1282, as the people of Palermo were on their way to hear vespers, all in holiday attire, a French soldier was rude to a Sicilian girl, and a fight broke out, which ended in the killing of all the Frenchmen in the island except one, who had been more kind and gentle than the rest. This was called the Sicilian Vespers. The Sicilians then sent to offer their crown to Pedro, King of Aragon, the nearest kinsman left to their old line. The Pope was so angry with him for accepting it as to declare his own kingdom forfeited, and to send Philip of France to take it from him. But soon after the French army had advanced into Aragon, sickness broke out among them, the king himself caught it, and died in the year 1284; and Pedro of Aragon gained the island of Sicily and kept it, though Charles of Anjou and his sons reigned on in Naples on the mainland.

Philip IV., called *Le Bel*, or the Fair, was only seventeen years old when he came to the crown; but he was as clever and cunning as his uncle,

Charles of Anjou, or his great grandfather, Philip Augustus, and his great object was to increase the power of the crown by any means he could. He had not to deal with an English king like John; but Edward I. was so much more anxious to make one kingdom of Great Britain than to be powerful in France, that he took little concern for his French duchies. So when Philip picked a quarrel and seized Guyenne, Edward would not draw off his men from Scotland to fight for it, but made a peace which only left him Gascony, and sealed it by himself marrying Philip's sister Margaret, and betrothed his son Edward to Philip's little daughter Isabel. It was very wrong—almost the worst action of the great king's life—for young Edward was already betrothed to the young daughter of the poor Count of Flanders, Guy Dampierre, whom Philip was cruelly oppressing. When England thus forsook their cause, Philip made the count prisoner, and so kept him all the rest of his life. Nothing but misery came of the marriage.

But the most remarkable part of the history of Philip IV. is what concerns the Church and the Popes. For the last two hundred years the Popes had been growing more and more powerful, and ruling over kings and princes—sometimes rebuking them manfully for their crimes, but too often only interfering with what disturbed the worldly power of the Church. Now, Philip was a man of evil life, and was, besides, very hard and grasping in requiring money from the clergy. The Pope, Boniface VIII., was an old man, but full of fiery vehemence; and he sent a letter of reprimand, bidding the king release the Count of Flanders, make peace, and exact no more from

the clergy.

Philip was very angry, and the two went on writing letters that made matters worse, until the Pope threatened to depose the king; and Philip sent off to Anagni, where the Pope generally lived, a French knight, named Nogaret, and an Italian, called Sciarra Colonna, who had quarrelled with the Pope and fled to France. They rode into Anagui, crying, "Long live the King of France! death to Boniface!" at the head of a troop of worthless fellows who had gathered round them. The people of Anagni were so shocked that they never moved, and the men went on to the church, where they found the Pope, a grand old man of eighty-six, seated calmly by the altar in his robes, with his tiara on his head. They rushed up to him, insulting him and striking him on the cheeks; indeed Colonna would have killed him on the spot but for Nogaret. They dragged him out of the church, and kept him prisoner for three days; but after that, the townspeople recovered from their fright, rose, and rescued him, and conducted him safely to Rome; but what he had gone through had been too much for him, and a few mornings later he was found lying quite dead, the head of his stick at his lips, gnawed and covered with foam, and his white hair

stained with blood, as if in a fit of terror he had dashed his head against the wall. This piteous death was in the year 1303.

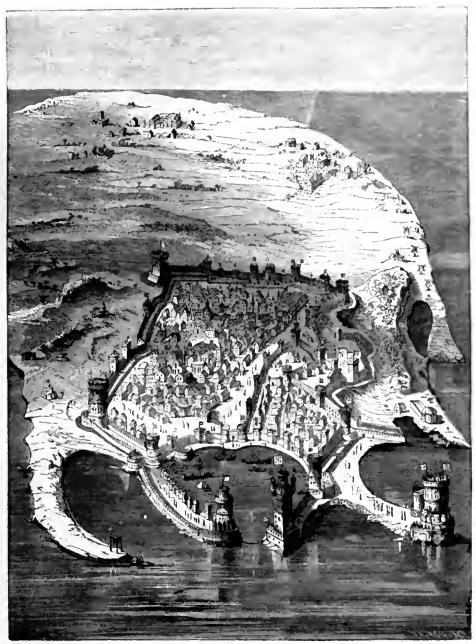
Another Pope was chosen; but as soon as Philip found that the new one was determined to control him, he caused him to be poisoned, and then determined to get the future one into his hands. There were a good many French cardinals who would, he knew, vote for any one he chose; and meeting in secret the Archbishop of Bordeaux, the king told him he should have their votes on six conditions. Five of these related to the making up of the old quarrel with Boniface; the sixth Philip would not tell then, but the archbishop swore it should be fulfilled; and the king then brought about his election as Pope, when he took the name of Clement V.

To every one's surprise, he chose to be crowned at Lyons instead of Rome, and then took up his abode at Avignon, in Provence, which, though it belonged to the empire, was so much in France as to be entirely in the king's power. As long as the Popes remained at Avignon, they were nothing but tools to the kings of France; and this really seems to have been the greatest misfortune that happened to France. The power of the Popes was stretched much too far, and their interference in temporal matters was often wrong, but it was the only authority that ever kept kings and princes in order; and when the Popes lived on French ground, and were afraid to reprove the lords of the country, there was nothing to hinder the evil ways of either kings or nobles, and they went on from bad to worse, unrestrained by the Church, the witness of the truth.

Philip the Fair was a very greedy man, always seeking after money, and oppressing his people heavily to obtain it. Now, you remember that two orders of soldier monks had been set up to defend the Holy Sepulchre. Soon after St. Louis's last crusade, Acre, the last spot that belonged to the Christians, had been taken from them. The Knights Hospitallers had settled in the island of Rhodes, hoping some day to return; but the Knights Templars had gone to the houses in Europe, where they used to train up young men to arms. They were rich in lands, and, having nothing to do, were proud and insolent. And Philip cast his eyes on their wealth, and teld the Pope that his sixth condition was that all the Templars should be destroyed. Most of them were living in France, but the others were invited to hold a great chapter there; and when almost all were come, horrible accusations were made—that they were really heathen, that no one came into their order without being made to renounce his baptism and trample on the Cross, that they murdered little children, and other frightful stories; and then five hundred and two were imprisoned by the Inquisition, and seventy-two tortured to make them confess.

Most of them were brave, and denied it all; but there were a few who could not bear the pain, and said whatever was put into their mouths.

Then, after being kept in prison two years, the rest were sentenced, brought out in parties of fifty and burnt to death, while the Pope declared the order



ISLAND OF RHODES.

dissolved, and gave the king all their possessions. This was in 1311. The Grand Master, James de Molay, was kept in prison three years longer, but then was brought out at Paris, and burnt before the king's palace-garden

He was a fine old white-bearded man; and as he stood there in the fire, he called on Clement, Pope of Rome, and Philip, King of France, to appear before the judgment-seat of God—the first within forty days, the second within a year—to answer for their usage of him and his knights.

Before the fortieth day, Clement V. actually died; and before the year was out, Philip the Fair sank away from consumption, and died in his forty-sixth year, in the year 1314, leaving the most hateful name in French history.



## CHAPTER XVIII.

LOUIS X., HUTIN	A.D. 1314-1313.
PHILIP V., LE LONG,	
CHARLES IV., LE BEL	
PHILLIP VI	1350.

and one daughter, Isabel, who was married to Edward of England. Louis X. was called by the nickname of *Hutin*, which is said to mean the Peevish or Ill-tempered. He was married to the young Queen of Navarre, in her own right; but he only reigned two years, and his only son lived but five days. The French barons declared it was against the old law of the Salic Franks that their kingdom should fall to a woman, so Louis's little daughter Joan was only to be Queen

of Navarre, while his brother, Philip V. (Le Long, or the Tall), became king. He must have been as cruel as his father, for there rose up in his time a foolish story that the fountains of water had been poisoned by the lepers and the Jews, whereupon he gave orders that they should suffer for it. They were killed on the spot, or else burnt at the stake throughout France, while the king and his nobles seized the treasures of the Jews; but in the midst the king died, at only thirty years old, in the year 1322, leaving only four girls; so that his brother, Charles IV., reigned after him. It was during the six years that Charles was on the throne that his sister Isabel came from England with complaints of her husband, Edward II., and succeeded in collecting the knights, who helped her to dethrone him, after which he was brought to a miserable end in prison.

Every one believed that the sins of the wicked father had been visited on these three sons—dying young, and without heirs; and the French were glad when Charles the Fair died, in 1328, that their kingdom should go to Philip VI., Count of Valois, the son of the younger brother of Philip IV., Charles of Valois.

But Edward III. of England ealled himself the right heir, declaring himself nearer in blood to his uncle, Charles IV., than Philip of Valois, their first cousin, could be. This was true; but then, if all the daughters of the three last kings were shut out from reigning, it was not reasonable that he should pretend to a right through their aunt. At first, though he put his claim forward, he seems to have been willing to let it sleep; but there was



JEWS CONDEMNED TO BE BURNED AT THE STAKE.

a certain Robert of Artois, who had been deprived of what he thought his lawful inheritance, and who was suspected of wanting to bring about Philip's death by sorcery. He was said to have made a waxen image of the king and stuck it full of pins, and set it before the fire, expecting that, as the wax melted, so Philip would perish away and die. Philip believed the story, and Robert was obliged to fly to England, where, out of hatred and revenge, he stirred up the king to put forward his claim, and to begin the war with France which is sometimes called the Hundred Years' War. The great cities in Flanders, where cloth was woven, were friendly to the English, because in that peaceable country the sheep that bore the wool could feed quietly, and their supplies of material came from thence. Besides,

Philip had tried to make them accept a count whom they hated, so they drove him away, and invited Edward to Ghent. The French fleet tried to meet and stop him, but their ships were defeated and sunk, with great loss of men, off Sluys, in the year 1340.

Not long after, there was a great dispute about the dukedom of Brittany, which was claimed by the daughter of the elder brother, and by the younger brother, of the late duke. The niece had married Charles de Blois; the unele was the Count de Montfort. The King of France took the part of the niece, the King of England that of Montfort. Before long, Montfort was made prisoner and sent to Paris; but his wife, the brave Joan, defended his cause as well as any knight of them all. She shut herself up in Hennebonne, and held out the town while De Blois besieged her; and when the townsmen began to lose heart, and say they must surrender, she opened the window of the eastle, and bade them look out to sea; and there was the English fleet coming to their aid. Sir Walter Manny commanded the troops it brought, and the first thing he did was to lead a party to sally out and burn the French machines for battering the town. When they came back, Countess Joan came to meet them, and kissed all the knights, like a right valiant lady as she was, says the old chronicler Froissart, who has left us a charming history of these times. The war in Brittany lasted twenty-four years altogether. Montfort made his escape from prison, but died very soon after he reached home; and his widow sent her little son to be bred up in Edward's court in England, while she took care of his cause at home. The English were very much hated and disliked in Brittany, and seem to have been very fierce and rough with the people, whose language they did not understand; and some of the knights who were the greatest foes of all to the English grew up in Brittany, more especially Bertrand du Guesclin and Oliver de Clisson, but they were as yet boys.

Edward made his greatest attack on France in the year 1346. Philip had gathered all the very best of his kingdom to meet him. The knights of France were nearly as strong as the knights of England, but there was one great difference between the two armies, and that arose from the harshness of the counts and barons. Every one below them was a poor, miserable serf (unless he lived in a town), and had never handled arms. Now, in England there were farmers and stout peasants, who used to practice shooting with the bow once a week. So there were always sturdy English archers to fight, and the French had nothing of the same kind to meet them, and tried hiring men from Genoa. The battle was fought at Creçy, near Ponthien; and when it was to begin by each troop of archers shooting a flight of arrows at one another, it turned out that a shower of rain which had just fallen had slackened the bow-strings of the Genoese archers; but the Englishmen had their bows safe in leathern cases, and their strings were in full

order, so the arrows galled the French knights, and a charge was ordered to cut them down. But full in the way stood the poor Genoese, fumbling to tighten their strings; and the knights were so angry at being hindered, that they began cutting them down right and left, thus spending their strength against their own army, so that it was no wonder that they were beaten and put to flight. King Philip himself had to ride as fast as he could from the battlefield; and coming to a castle just as night set in, he blew his horn at the gates, and when the warder called out to know who was there, he answered, "Open, open! it is the fortune of France!"

The English went on to besiege and take the city of Calais; and in Brittany, Charles de Blois was defeated and made prisoner; and there was the further misfortune of a horrible plague, called the Black Death, raging all through France. Five hundred people a day died in the great hospital called the Hotel Dieu, at Paris, and it was bad also in England; so that both kings were glad to have a truce, and rest for a few years, though Edward still called himself King of France, and the dispute was far from settled. Philip paid his men by causing the nation to pay a tax upon salt, while Edward's chief tax was on wool; so while Philip called his rival the wool merchant, Edward said that the Valois did indeed reign by the Salic law (sal being the Latin for salt).

The Counts of the Viennois, in the south of France, used to be called Counts Dauphin, because there was a dolphin in their coat of arms. The Dauphin Humbert, having neither children nor brothers, bequeathed his county to the king's eldest grandson, Charles, on condition that it should always be kept separate from the crown lands. Ever since that time the eldest son of the king of France has always been called the Dauphin.

A year later Philip died, in the year 1350, after a reign that had been little more than one long war.



## CHAPTER XIX.

JOHN.

A.D. 1350-1364.



Philip VI. had a reign which was all one war, it was much the same with his son John, who thought himself a brave and honorable knight, though he often did evil and cruel actions.

The little kingdom of Navarre, in the Pyrenees, had passed from the daughter of Lonis Hutin to her son, Charles, called the Bad. In right of his father, the Count d'Eveux, he was a French noble, and he wanted to hold the highest office a noble could hold—namely, that of Constable of France. The Constable commanded all the armies, and was the most mighty

person in the realm next to the king; and when John gave the appointment to the Lord Charles de la Cerda, Charles the Bad, in his rage and disappointment, contrived to poison the new Constable; and he was also said to have tried to poison the Dauphin Charles; and though the dose failed to kill, it ruined the young man's health, and in the end shortened his life. It was owing to the Dauphin that Charles the Bad was seized at last. He invited him to dinner, and appeared to be very friendly; but in the midst of the feast the king appeared with a band of soldiers, seized the King of Navarre, and carried him to prison. It was very treacherous; but the Dauphin Charles, young as he was, was much more cunning than his father.

Charles the Bad was clever, and had many friends who were angered by his imprisonment, and went over to the cause of the King of England. Edward, the Prince of Wales, who was at Bordeaux, the capital of Gascony, took the opportunity of advancing into the French dominions, and John assembled an army to meet and drive him back.

The battle was fought at Poitiers; John was there, with his sons and his brother, and all his best knights, and the battle was long and hotly fought. The French did much better than at Creçy; but the English were too strong for them, though the king was as brave as a lion, and struck vehemently with his battle-axe, his youngest son Philip keeping close to him, and warning him where to strike. "This way, father!" or, "That way, father!" "To the right!" "To the left!" But at last the father and son found themselves almost alone, with all their men scattered and dispersed, and nothing but enemies around. The king had lost his helmet, and was

slightly wounded, and greatly worn out; so he called to the first squire he saw—one Denis de Morbeque—and finding that he was a gentleman, surrendered to him. He was brought to the Prince of Wales, who treated him with the utmost kindness and courtesy, and did his best to lighten the pain and humiliation of captivity.



"THIS WAY, FATHER!"

The Dauphin had fled early in the day, and was thought to have been the cause of the loss of the battle. Everything fell into a deplorable state. The Prince of Wales ruled the old English Gascon territory at Bordeaux; and though there was a truce between the two kings, troops of soldiers—

Free Companions, as they called themselves—roamed about, plundering and robbing all over France, while the king was a prisoner in England. The Dauphin was hated and despised, and had no power at all; and in Paris, a burgher named Stephen Marcel was chosen provost, and led all the populace to terrify the Government into doing what he pleased. The mark of his followers was a hood, half red and half blue; and thinking that the Dauphin's friends gave him bad advice, Marcel suddenly rushed into his presence, at the head of a whole troop of Parisians, wearing these colors, and demanded, "Will you put an end to the troubles, and provide for the defence of the kingdom?" "That is not my part," said Charles, "but that of those who receive the money of the taxes." Marcel made a sign, and his followers murdered the two noblemen who stood beside the Dauphin. prince, in terror, fell on his knees and begged for his life; and Marcel thrust one of the red and blue hoods upon his head, and then told him, pointing to the two corpses, "I require you, in the name of the people, to consent to their death, for it is done by the will of the people."

The Dauphin consented; but he soon made his escape, and took up arms against Marcel. Charles of Navarre had been released from his prison, and was fighting in the south of France; and Charles de Blois had been ransomed, and was fighting in Brittany; and, to add to all these, the peasants, who had been always ill-used and trampled down by the nobles, began to rise against them. "Bon homme Jacques" had been the nickname given them by the nobles, and hence this rebellion was called the Jacquerie, and a terrible one it was; for the peasants were almost savages, and whenever they could surprise a castle, they murdered every one in it. They set up a king from among them, and soon one hundred thousand had risen in Picardy and Champagne; but they were armed only with scythes and axes, and the nobles soon put them down, and then were just as brutal themselves in their The "King of the Jacques" was crowned with a red-hot tripod, and hung; and the poor wretches were hunted down like wild beasts, and slaughtered everywhere, and nothing was done to lessen the misery that made them rebel.

The Dauphin besieged Paris, and Marcel, finding that he could not hold out, invited the King of Navarre to help him; but another magistrate, who hated Charles the Bad, contrived to attack Marcel as he was changing the guard, killed him and six of his friends, and brought the Dauphin back into Paris. This was only the first of the many fierce and tumultuous outbreaks that have stained the fair eity of Paris with blood.

King John was so anxious to return, that he promised to give up to Edward all that Henry II. and Cœur de Lion had held; but the Dauphin and the States-General did not choose to confirm his proposal, thinking it better to leave him in prison than to weaken the kingdom so much. So

Edward invaded France again, and marched almost up to Paris, intending to fight another battle; but the Dauphin had made up his mind never to fight a battle with the English again; and between the war and the Jacquerie, the whole country was bare of inhabitants, cattle, or crops. The English army was almost starved, and a frightful tempest did it much damage; so that Edward consented to make peace, and set John free, on condition that his two sons should be given up as hostages for the payment of a great ransom, and a large part of Aquitaine ceded to England.

King John returned; but he found the kingdom in such a dreadful state of misery and poverty, that he could not collect the money for the ransom, nor would his sons remain as pledges for it. They were allowed to live at Calais, and make short journeys into France; but they would not submit to this, and at last stayed away altogether. John was much grieved and ashamed, and said the only thing he could do was to return and give himself up as a prisoner, since he could not fulfil the conditions of his release. When he was entreated to remain at home, he said, "Where should honor find a refuge if not in the breasts of kings?" and accordingly he went back to London, where he was welcomed as a friend by King Edward, and there he died in the year 1364. He left four sons—the Dauphin Charles; Louis, the Duke of Anjou; John, Duke of Berry; and Philip, who had married the heiress of Burgundy, and was made duke of that province.



### CHAPTER XX.

CHARLES V.

A.D. 1364-1380.

HARLES V., in spite of his troubles as Dauphin, was a much abler man than his father, John; and he had seen the best way to treat the English enemy—namely, not to fight with them, but to starve them out.

The French knights could beat any one except the English; and just now there professed to be peace with Edward III., but with Charles the Bad of Navarre there was still war, until a battle was fought at Cocherel, between the French, under the brave Breton knight, Bertrand du Gues-

clin, and the Navarrese, under the great friend of the Black Prince, the brave Gascon knight, the Captal de Buch. Du Guesclin gained a great

victory, and made the Captal prisoner, and from that time no French knight was equal to him in fame. Thus Charles the Bad had to make peace.

The young De Montfort, who had been brought up in England, was by this time old enough to try to fight for Brittany; and though the kings were at peace, the Prince of Wales lent him a troop of English, commanded by the best captain in all Europe, Sir John Chandos; and at the battle of Auray, Charles de Blois, who had so long striven to win the duchy, was killed, and Du Guesclin was made prisoner. After this, the king accepted Montfort as Duke of Brittany, and this war was likewise over.



FREE COMPANIONS OVERPOWERED.

But after so many years of fighting, there were a great many men who knew and cared for nothing else. They could not be quiet. All they wanted was a horse and armor, and some one to hire them to fight, let them gain plunder, and take prisoners to put to ransom. They called themselves Free Companions, or Free Lances, and used to get some skilful warrior to be their leader. When the wars were over and nobody wanted to hire them, they would take possession of some castle, and live by plundering the travelers in the country round, so that they were the most dreadful plague imaginable.

King Charles asked Du Gueselin how to get rid of them, and Bertrand thought of a plan. Castille, in Spain, had just then one of the wickedest kings who ever lived, Peter the Cruel, who murdered his wife (a cousin of Charles), and killed most of his half-brothers, besides many other persons. One of the brothers, Henry of Trastamare, managed to escape, and came to France to beg for help; and Du Guesclin told the king that it would be an excellent way of getting rid of the Free Companions to draw them off into Spain. Charles consented, and Du Guesclin invited their leaders to meet him; and when they found that he would lead them, they all consented, making sure of plenty of fighting and plundering. As they rode past Avignon, they frightened the Pope into giving them a large contribution; and as soon as they entered Castille, Peter the Cruel fled away, and Henry was crowned king. He kept Du Guesclin in his service, but sent all the others back to France.

However, Peter came to Bordeaux, and showed himself to the Black Prince as an ill-used, distressed king; and Edward took up his cause, and undertook to set him on his throne again. All the Free Companions, who were coming back from Spain, no sooner heard that the Prince was going there, than they took service with him to restore the very king they had just dethroned. A great battle was fought at Navareta, in which the Prince was victorious. Du Guesclin was made prisoner, and Henry of Trastamare fled for his life. Pedro was placed on the throne once more; but he kept none of his promises to the English, and they soon perceived what a horribly cruel and wicked wretch he was. Sickness broke out among them, and they went back to Bordeaux, leaving him to his fate. Every one in France was most anxious to have Du Guesclin free again, and even the maidens of Brittany are said to have spun day and night to earn money for his ransom. As soon as the sum was raised and he was at liberty, he returned to Spain with Henry, and they chased Pedro into the castle of Montiel, whence he came out in the night and attempted to murder his brother, but in the struggle was himself killed, to the great relief of all concerned with him.

The Black Prince was, in the meantime, ill at Bordeaux, and in trouble how to pay the Free Companions, since Pedro had not given him the promised sum. He was obliged to tax his Gascon subjects, and this made them angry. They appealed to Charles V., who was still their suzerain, and he summoned the Prince to appear at Paris and answer their complaint.

Edward said he should only come with his helmet on his head and sixty thousand men behind him, and so the war began again; but the Prince was out of health, and could not fight as he used to do, and the French king forbade his captains ever to give battle, even Du Guesclin, whom he made Constable of France, and who grumbled much at being forbidden.

The war was carried on by sieges of castles, which, one by one, fell into French hands for want of means on the part of the English prince to relieve them.

Stung and embittered, at last he roused himself; and though he could no longer mount his horse, he went in a litter to besiege the city of Limoges, and when it was taken, he sought his revenge in a terrible massacre of all the inhabitants. This, his saddest, expedition was his last. He went back to England a sick man, and never recovered. Governors were sent to Bordeaux; but they could do little against the continually advancing French, and at last nothing in France was left to Edward but the province of Gascony and the city of Calais. A truce was made; and before the end of it both the great Edwards were dead, and Richard II. on the throne, under the regency of his uncles, who tried to carry on the war, but still with no better fortune.

It was while besieging a little eastle, named Chateau Randon, that the brave Du Guesclin fell sick of a fever and died. The English captain had promised to surrender if help did not come to him within a certain time; and when he heard that the great Coustable was dead, he would not yield to any one else, but caused himself to be led to the tent of the dead man, on whose breast he laid down the keys of the castle. The king made Du Guesclin's friend, Oliver de Clisson, Coustable in his stead. He was a Breton too, a brave knight, and a skilful leader; but his brother had been made prisoner by the English, and hung, and he had made the savage vow that he would never spare the life of an Englishman, so that he was called the Butcher; and it was a dreadful thing to fall into his hands.

The king himself did not live much longer. He had never entirely shaken off the effects of the poison his bad namesake had given him, and knew he should die young. He carefully instructed his queen, Joan de Bourbon, how to protect his two young sons, Charles and Louis; but to his great grief she died first, and he was obliged to leave the boys to the care of their uncles, when he died on the 16th of September, 1380, after a reign of so much success that he is commonly known as Charles the Wise.



# CHAPTER XXI.

CHARLES VI.

A.D. 1380-1396.

was an evil hour for poor young Charles VI. when, at twelve years old, he was left an orphan king. His uncles-the Dukes of Anjou, Berri, and Burgundy (his father's brothers), and the Duke of Bourbon (his mother's brother)—quarreled about the government, and he was allowed to grow up little heeded or restrained, and with all his passions unchecked.

The Church was in a most unsettled state. The Popes, while living at Avignon, were at the beck of the French kings, and this could not be borne by the other lands of the Western

Besides, they and their cardinals had not enough to do in this little town, and idleness led to all kinds of wickedness, while their proper abode at Rome was left to wild tumults and confusion. So at last, in the year 1376, Pope Gregory XI. had decided on going back to Rome, though Charles V. and all the cardinals of French birth did all they could to prevent him. He died two years after he came there; and then all the cardinals who wanted to stay in Italy chose one Pope, and all the cardinals who wished to live at Avignon chose another, and went back with him. So there were two Popes, the real Pope and the anti-Pope, and this made a grievous division, which is known as the Great Schism. The French and all their friends held by the Pope at Avignon, the English and all theirs by the Pope at Rome; and things grew worse than ever, for both Popes were very poor, and wanted as much money as they could; and they were also afraid to offend either kings or bishops, for fear they should leave their party, and so sin and wickedness went on unchecked.

One of the proudest nobles was Louis, Count of Flanders. He had many rich cities in his county, where almost all the best cloth, linen, and lace of the time was made, and where the burghers were rich and resolute. There was always much dislike and distrust between the counts and the cities; and Louis was so severe, that at last the men of Ghent rose against him and shut their gates, choosing as their leader Philip von Artevelde, the son of the brewer, Jacob von Artevelde, who had been a friend of Edward III. Artevelde led them out to fight with the count, gained a great victory, and hunted him into the city of Bruges. There he was as much hated as he

in the flight.

was in Ghent; all the people in the streets rose up against him, and nobody would give him shelter, till at last he found himself in the house of a poor widow who had sometimes received alms at his gate. He begged her to hide him, and she bade him creep under the bed, where her three little children were lying asleep. He had only just had time to do so, when his enemies burst open the door, declaring he had gone in there; but the widow bade them look in, and when they saw only the bed full of children, they thought he could not be there, and went away.

In the morning he managed to get out of the city, and escaped to Paris, where he begged the king and his uncles to come to his help. He had but one daughter, who was to marry the son of the Duke of Burgundy; so it was their interest to bring the Flemish towns to obedience, and the young king was very eager to make his first campaign. All the revolted burghers came out to battle with the knights and gentlemen, but they could not make head against such a well-tried old leader as the Constable de Clisson, though they fought desperately; and at the battle of Rosbecque twenty-six thousand men were killed, and Philip von Artevelde was trampled to death

The young king loved and admired the Constable de Clisson more than any one else; but the old man was much hated by many others for his harshness and cruelty; and one night, in the streets of Paris, he was set upon by some murderers, who wounded him badly, and he was only saved by falling against a house-door, which gave way with his weight, so that he fell into a dark passage, where his enemies left him for dead, and fled away into Brittany. The king demanded that they should be sent back to be put to death, but the Duke of Brittany, who hated Clisson, would not give them Charles made sure that the duke had set them on, and in a great rage declared that he would lay all Brittany waste. He collected his troops and set out, but a strange thing happened as he was riding through the forest of Mans, on a burning hot summer day. A man, probably mad, rushed out from the bushes, caught his bridle, and cried, "Ride no further, king; thou art betrayed!" The man was drawn away; but presently after, as they rode on, a page who had charge of the king's lance fell asleep on horseback, and let the point ring against the helmet of the man in front. This must have made the king fancy the treason had begun, and becoming frantic that moment, he drew his sword and rushed upon his followers, crying, "Down with the traitors!" He killed four, but the others saved themselves by pretending to fall before the stroke; and at last, as his strength became spent, a tall, strong knight sprang on his horse behind him and overpowered him. He was carried back to Mans, where he had a brain-fever; but he recovered, and was for some time in perfect health, governing, not perhaps well, but with kind intentions. He married Isabel of Bavaria; and had she taken better care of him, his life would have been far happier; but she was a dull, selfish woman, who cared more for good eating and amusement than for her husband and children, whom she neglected greatly.

At a great festival, the king and five of his nobles dressed themselves up as wild men of the woods, in close garments, covered with pitch, with long loose flakes of tow hanging to them to represent hair, and green boughs round their heads and waists. Chained together, they danced in among the ladies, who were to guess who they were. The king's brother (the Duke of Orleans) held a torch so near to one of them, the better to see who it was,



VICTORIOUS TURKS ENTERING CONSTANTINOPLE.

that he set fire to the tow, and the flames spread to the whole party. Four were burnt to death, one saved himself by breaking the chain and leaping into a tub of water, and the king himself was preserved by the Duchess of Berri, who threw her mantle over him; but the shock had been so great that his insanity came on again, and he was never sensible for long together through the rest of his life. But he still was supposed to rule France, and so the power was in the hands of whoever had possession of him, and this at first was his uncle Philip, Duke of Burgundy.

Still, as there was peace with England, the French knights thought of crusades. Indeed, the Turks, under their great leader Bajazet, were beginning to make their way into Europe; and the eldest son of the Duke of Burgundy, John the Fearless, set out with a party of French knights to succor the Hungarians against them. They came just as peace had been sworn to on each side; but it seemed such a pity that their aid should be wasted, that the Hungarians broke their word, and attacked the Turks. But their breach of faith met a due reward, for the whole army was defeated and butchered, and John himself, with twenty-seven nobles, alone lived to be ransomed.

Afterward, Marshal Boucieault led another troop to help the Emperor of Constantinople, Manuel Palæologos, and brought him home to France to visit the king, and ask further aid from the princes of Europe.



## CHAPTER XXII.

BURGUNDIANS AND ARMAGNACS.

A.D. 1415-1422.

OTHING could be more sad than the state of France under the mad king. As long as his uncle (the Duke of Burgundy) lived, he was not so ill cared for, and the country was under some sort of government; but when Duke Philip died, and the dukedom passed to his son, John the Fearless, there was a perpetual quarrel between this rough and violent duke and the king's brother Louis, Duke of Orleans. The Duchess of Orleans—a gentle Italian lady (Valentina of Milan)—was the only person who could calm the poor king in his fits of frenzy,

and the friends of Burgundy declared she bewitched him, and made him worse. In the meantime, Queen Isabel would do nothing but amuse herself with the Duke of Orleans, and the king and her little children were

left without attendants, and often without proper clothes or food.

The people of Paris hated Orleans, and loved the Duke of Burgundy, and this last was resolved to get the king into his power. So one night, as the Duke of Orleans was going home from supper with the queen, he was set upon by murderers and killed in the streets of Paris; and, what was even more horrible, the Duke of Burgundy caused a priest to preach a ser-

mon defending the wicked act. The Duchess of Orleans came with her sons and knelt at the king's feet, imploring for the murderer to be punished; but he could do nothing for her, and she went home and died broken-hearted. However, her son, the young Duke of Orleans, married the daughter of the Count of Armagnac, who took up his cause so vehemently, that all the friends of the House of Orleans were called Armagnacs, and were known by wearing a white scarf over the left shoulder, while the Burgundians wore blue hoods.

The king's eldest son, the Dauphin Louis, was sixteen years old, and tried to get into power; but he was a foolish, idle youth, whom no one heeded. When he heard that the new king of England, Henry V., meant to invade France, Louis sent him a present of a basket of tennis balls, saying they were his most fitting weapons, considering his way of life, as the madcap prince. Henry answered that he hoped to return balls from the mouths of cannon against Paris; and it was not long before he actually

crossed the channel, and laid siege to Harfleur, in Normandy.

He soon took it, for no aid was sent to it; and he proclaimed himself as King of France, like Edward III. before him, and proceeded to endeavor to conquer the country. The Dauphin collected an army, and marched to intercept him, as he was on his way from Harfleur to Calais to obtain fresh supplies. The French army greatly outnumbered the English, and thought it would be easy to cut them off, seeing them hungry, sick, and worn with a long march. But the carelessness, the dissensions, and the insubordination of the French army would have caused it to be beaten by a far less skilful general than was Henry V.; and though each noble and knight was personally valiant, this did-little good when they were not united. There was an immense slaughter at this far-famed battle of Agincourt, and many noted prisoners were taken by the English, especially the Duke of Orleans; and Henry would not allow these nobles to be ransomed, but kept them in captivity in England, until he should have finished winning the kingdom.

The Dauphin Louis escaped from the battle, but died soon after; his next brother (the Dauphin John) did not survive him long; and the third brother (the Dauphin Charles) was entirely under the power of the Armag-

nac party, as well as his father and mother.

But the Count of Armagnac was so insolent that Queen Isabel could bear it no longer, and fled to the Duke of Burgundy's protection; and soon after the people of Paris rose against the Armagnaes, and murdered every one whom they found belonging to them. The count himself was horribly gashed, and his body was dragged up and down the streets. The poor king was in a fit of madness in his palace; the Danphin was carried away by his friend, Sir Tanueguy du Chastel; and for a whole month there was nothing but savage murders throughout Paris of all who were supposed to be

Armagnacs, until the queen and the Duke of Burgundy arrived, and restored something like order.

No one, of course, had leisure to do anything to relieve Rouen, which Henry V. was besieging, and took in spite of the citizens holding out bravely. The queen and duke determined to make peace with him, and met him at a meadow near Pontoise, where beautiful embroidered tents were pitched; and they held a conference, in which Henry asked in marriage Catherine, the youngest daughter of Charles and Isabel, with the whole of the provinces that had once belonged to the English kings as her dowry—



JOHN THE FEARLESS STABBED.

Normandy, Aquitaine, and all. If this were refused, he would conquer the whole kingdom for himself.

No promises were absolutely made. The Duke of Burgundy could not make up his mind to give up so large a portion of his native realm, and began to consider of going over to the Dauphin and helping him to defend himself. A meeting was arranged for the Duke and Dauphin on the bridge of Montereau; but Tanneguy du Chastel and the prince's other friends had no intention of letting the boy get into the power of the

great duke, and during the conference they treacherously stabbed John the Fearless to the heart. His murder of the Duke of Orleans was thus visited upon him, but the crime was dreadful in those who committed it. The consequence was that his son Philip, called the Good, went entirely over to the English; and before long, Henry V. was married to Catherine, and was to be Regent of France as long as poor Charles lived, and after that king, the Dauphin being disinherited as a murderer.

All the north of France had been conquered by the English, and the Dauphin and his friends had retired to the south. Thence they sent to the Scots to ask for help, and many brave Scotsmen came, glad of a chance of fighting with the English. Henry had gone home to England to take his bride, and had left his brother, the Duke of Clarence, in command, when, as the English were marching into Anjou, the Scots fell on them at Beaujé,

and defeated them, killing the Duke of Clarence.

Henry came back in haste, and again carried all before him. He took the town of Meaux, where a horrible robber lived, cruelly preying on the inhabitants of Paris; but the siege lasted the whole winter. Henry caught cold there, and never was well again, though he kept his Whitsuntide at Paris with great state. Soon after, he set out for another campaign, but he became so ill on the journey that he had to be carried back to Vincennes, and there died. No one of all his own children had ever been so good to poor King Charles as Henry had been, and the loss at last broke his heart. He wept and wailed constantly for his good son Henry, pined away, and died only three months later, in October, 1422, after thirty years of madness.



## CHAPTER XXIII.

CHARLES VII.

A.D. 1422-1461.

HOUGH all history counts the reign of Charles VII. as beginning from the death of his unhappy father, yet it was really the infant Henry, son of his sister Catherine and of Henry V. of England, who was proclaimed King of France over the grave in which Charles VI. was buried, and who was acknowledged throughout France as far as the Loire, while his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, acted as Regent.

Charles VII. was proclaimed king by the Armagnaes, but most people still called him the Dauphin, and many termed

him the King of Bourges, for he lived in that little town, never seeming to trouble himself about the state of his kingdom, but only thinking how to amuse himself from day to day, and sometimes even talking of fleeing to Scotland, and leaving everything to the English.

Bedford, in the meantime, determined to push on the work of conquest, and sent the Earl of Salisbury to lay siege to Orleans; but the place was bravely defended, and Salisbury was killed by a shot in the throat while looking on at the works. Soon after, as some stores were being sent to the English, a party of French nobles resolved to stop them, and fell upon the wagons. The English came out to defend them, and there was a general battle, which is known as the Battle of the Herrings, because the provisions chiefly consisted of salt fish, intended to be eaten in Lent.

The siege lasted on, but a wonderful aid came to the French. A young girl, named Joan d'Are, thought she was called by the Angel St. Michael, and the Virgin Saints, Catherine and Margaret, to deliver her country and lead the king to be crowned at Rheims. At first no one would believe her, but she was so earnest that at last the king heard of her, and sent for her. He received her by torchlight, and standing in the midst of many nobles, more richly dressed than he was; but she knew him at once among them all, and led him a little apart, when she told him things that he declared no one else could have known but himself, and which made him sure she must have some unearthly knowledge. She said her Voices directed her to go and fetch a marvelous sword from the shrine of St. Catherine, at Fierbois, and with this in her hand she led the troops to drive the English from



JOAN OF ARC RECOGNIZES THE KING.



Orleans; but she never herself fought or struck a blow; she only led the French, who had such trust in her, that wherever she led they willingly followed. The English soldiers, on the other hand, believed her to be a witch, and fled in horror and dismay, leaving their leaders, who stood firm, to be slain. Thus it was that she succeeded in entering Orleans, and deliver-



JOAN D'ARC RECEIVES THE BANNER,

ing it from the siege. Thenceforth she was called the Maid of Orleans, and victory seemed to follow her. She fought in the name of Heaven, and did all she could to make her followers holy and good, rebuking them for all bad language or excess; and at last she had the great joy of opening the way to Rheims, the city where all French kings had been crowned ever since the beginning of the Meerwings. She saw Charles VII. crowned and

anointed, and then she begged to go home to her cottage; but the king and his council would not permit this, because she was such an encouragement to their men, and a terror to the English. But her hope and confidence were gone, and the French captains did not like her, though their men did; and at Compiègne the governor shut the gates, and left her outside to be made prisoner by the Burgundians. She was kept in prison a long time—first in Burgundy, and then at Rouen—and tried before French and Burgundian bishops, who decided that her Voices had been delusions of Satan, and her victories his work; therefore, that she ought to be burnt as a witch. To the eternal disgrace of Charles VII., he never stirred a finger to save her, and she was burnt to death in the market-place at Rouen.

No one ever deserved less to win back a kingdom than Charles. He amused himself with one unworthy favorite after another; but there was a braye spirit among his knights and nobles, and the ablest of them was Arthur, Count de Richemont, brother to the Duke of Brittany, and Constable of France. As they grew stronger, the English grew weaker and less prudent. The Duke of Burgundy was offended, and made his peace with the King of France; and the Duke of Bedford soon after died at Rouen, worn out with care and trouble.

Step by step, bit by bit, did the French king regain his dominion. When his cause began to look hopeful, he shook off his sluggishness, and came in person to receive the submission of Paris, and to reconquer Normandy. But the war was not finally ended till the year 1453, when Bordeaux itself was taken by the French; and thus finished the hundred years' war that Edward III. had begun.

Charles VII. was not at all a foolish person when once he chose to exert himself. When the war was over, and the bands of men-at-arms had nothing to do, he managed better than his grandfather, Charles V.; for he laid them under strict rules, and gave them pay, so that they made him stronger, instead of being a torment to the whole country. But the nobles were very angry, and rose in an insurrection, which the Dauphin Louis joined, chiefly because he thought it would give his father trouble; but when he found the king too strong for the rebels, he made his peace, and left them to their fate.

Charles was a prosperous man, and established peace. In the Church, too, there was peace; for at the council held by the Lake of Constance, in the year 1415, the rival Popes of Rome and Avignon had both been made to resign, and a new one had been elected, who was reigning at Rome; but a great deal of evil had grown up during the Great Schism, which had not been remedied, and things were growing worse and worse; for if religion was not rightly taught, sin was sure to get unrestrained. One of the worst parts of Charles's nature was that he was so cold and ungrateful. The merchant, Jacques Cœur, had counseled him and lent him money, and done



THE MAID OF ORLEANS IN PRISON,



more than any one else to bear him through his troubles; and yet he let false and ridiculous accusations be brought forward, on which this great man was stripped of all his property, and sent away to die in exile. Yet Charles's name in history is the Well-served! But his son, Louis the Dauphin, hated him, and in a cunning, bitter way did all he could to vex and anger him. After many quarrels, Louis fled from court, and asked the protection of Duke Philip of Burgundy, who had become the most magnificent and stately of European princes, and hoped to make himself or his son king of the Low Countries.

The old king lived in continual fear of this son of his, and at last fancied that Louis meant to poison him, and refused to take any food or drink, until he lost the power of swallowing; and thus this cold-hearted, ungrateful king died a miserable death, in the year 1461. His coldness had made every one the more admire the splendid and generous Duke of Burgundy, whose riches and liberality were the talk of all, and whose court was the most stately in existence. Through his mother, he had inherited Flanders, with all the rich manufacturing towns; and Holland, with her merchant cities; and his court was full of beauty and luxury.



#### CHAPTER XXIV.

LOUIS XI.

A.D. 1461-1483.

DUIS XI. was one of the eleverest of men, but also one of the most crafty and cruel, and who has left the most hateful name in history. The one thing he cared for was to be powerful, and no sense of truth or pity would stop him in bringing this about. But it was not for state or splendor that he cared. He wore the meanest and most shabby clothes, and an old hat, surmounted by little leaden images of the saints, which he would take down and invoke to help him. For though his religion could have been good for nothing, since it did not

keep him from ever committing any crime, he was wonderfully superstitious. He must really have been taught, like all of his Church, that the saints did not bestow benefits, and could only be asked to intercede for them; but he not only prayed to them direct, but to their images; and it actually seems that he thought that if he told one image of the Blessed Virgin of some

crime, or made it some promise, it was a different thing from telling another.

His court fool once overheard him at his devotions and thought them so absurd and foolish that he could not help telling of them. The truth was that Louis had no love for God or man, he had only fear; and so he tried



TROOPS OF CHARLES THE BOLD.

to bribe the saints to keep from him the punishments he knew he deserved, by fine promises of gifts to their shrines. And his fear of man made him shut himself up in a grim castle at Plessis-les-Tours, with walls and moats all round, and a guard of archers from Scotland, posted in iron cages on the battlements, to shoot at any dangerous person. He did not like the company of his nobles and knights, but preferred that of his barber, Oliver le

Daim, and his chief executioner, Tristan l'Hermite; and whoever offended him, if not put to death, was imprisoned in the castle of Loches, often in an iron eage, so small that it was impossible to stand upright or lie at full length in it.

He had one brother, the Duke of Berri, whom he feared and hated, persecuting him till the Duke of Burgundy took the young man's part; but Louis managed to break up their alliance, and get his brother back into his

own hands, and then to poison him.

The old duke, Philip the Good, died just after Louis came to the throne, and his son, Charles the Bold, was a brave, high-spirited prince, with much that was noble and earnest about him, though very ambitious, and even more bent than his father on making his dukedom into a kingdom, reaching from the German Ocean to the Alps. To upset this power was Louis's great object. First, he began to stir up the turbulent towns of Flanders to break out against Charles; and then, while this was at work, he came to visit him at his town of Peronne, hoping to talk him over, and cajole him with polite words. But what the king had not expected came to pass. The mischief he had been brewing at Liège broke out suddenly; and the people rose in tumult, killed the duke's officers and shut their gates. No wonder Charles went into a great rage; and since Louis had put himself into a trap, thought it only fair to close the door on him. He kept him there till the French army had been summoned, and helped to reduce and, punish Liège; besides which, Louis made all manner of oaths, which, of course, he never meant to keep.

King and duke hated one another more than ever; and Charles, who had married the sister of Edward IV. of England, promised to aid the English if they would come to conquer France. Then Edward should have all the western parts, and he all the eastern. Edward actually came, with one of the finest armies that had ever sailed from England; but the Duke of Burgundy had been drawn into a war with the German emperor, and could not join him; and Louis sent cunning messages and bribes to Edward and his friends, to persuade them to go away without fighting. The two kings met one another on the bridge of Pecquiguy, across the Somme, with a great wooden barrier put up between, for fear they should murder one another; and they kissed one another through the bars, while the two armies looked on—the English ashamed, and the French well pleased, but laughing at them

for going back in this dishonorable way.

Charles the Bold would have gone on with the war, but Louis stirred up fresh enemies for him in Switzerland. The French king sent secret messengers into the Swiss towns and cantons to set them against the duke. The town of Basle rose, and murdered Charles's governor, and then joined the young Duke of Lorraine, his bitter enemy, and made war on him. Charles

was besteen in two battles, at Morat and Granson; and at last, when he was besieging Nancy (the capital of Lorraine), the wicked Count Campobasso, the commander of his hired Italian troops, on Epiphany night, betrayed him to the Swiss, opened the gates of the camp, and went over to the enemy. There was a great slaughter of the Burgundians; and after it was over, the body of the brave Duke Charles was found, stripped naked and gashed, lying half in and half out of a frozen pool of water.

He only left one daughter, named Mary. His dukedom of Burgundy could not go to a woman, so that returned to France; but Mary had all Flanders and Holland. Her father had betrothed her to Maximilian of Austria (the son of the German emperor); and when Louis was stirring up her towns to rebel against her, she sent her betrothed a ring as a token to beg him to come to her help. He did so at once, and they were married, and were most happy and prosperous for five years, till Mary was killed by a fall from her

horse, and her baby son Philip had her inheritance.

So Louis obtained the French part of the duchy of Burgundy. His mother (Mary of Anjou) had been the sister of the Duke of Anjou, who had been adopted as the son of Queen Jane of Naples, the descendant of Charles of Anjou, St. Louis's brother. René, Duke of Anjou, his brother (the father of Queen Margaret of England), had never been able to get the kingdom of Naples, though he was always called King René, but he did get the county of Provence, which belonged to it; and there he led a cheerful, peaceable life, among painters, poets, and musicians, and was one of the few good men of his time. His wife had been Duchess of Lorraine in her own right, and the young Duke of Lorraine who fought with Charles the Bold was the son of his eldest daughter, for all his sons died young. Louis could not take away Lorraine from the young duke; but he did persuade old King René at his death to leave the French kings all his claims to the kingdom of Naples—a very unhappy legacy, as will be seen.

Louis had three children—Anne, who married the Duke of Bourbon's brother, the Lord of Beaujeu, and whom he loved; and Jane, a poor, deformed, sickly girl, whom he cruelly teased because she was ugly, so that she used to hide behind her sister to escape his eye. She wanted to go into a convent; but he forced her to marry her cousin Louis, Duke of Orleans, who made no secret that he hated the very sight of her, though she was as good and meek as possible. Charles the Dauphin was sickly too, and the king himself had lost his health. He was in great dread of death—sent for a hermit from Italy (Francis de Paula) to pray for him, and vowed to give silver and gold images and candlesticks and shrines to half the saints if they would save him; but death came to him at last, in 1483, just as wicked

Richard III. of England had gained the crown.

#### CHAPTER XXV.

CHARLES VIII.

A.D. 1483-1498.

OUNG Charles VIII. was but nine years old when he came to the crown. He was a weakly boy, with thin legs and a large head, but very full of spirit. His father had never cared about his learning, saying that to know how to dissimulate was all that signified to a king; and his sister Anne, the Lady of Beaujeu, who had the charge of him and his kingdom, thought like her father, and took no pains to teach him. He read nothing but poems and romances about knights and ladies, dragons and enchanters; but he did really gain the

best lessons they could teach him, for instead of learning dissimulation, he hated it. He never deceived any one, never broke his word, was always courteous; and so far from showing mean spite, like his father, he never wilfully grieved or vexed any one of any sort through his whole life.

At first, the Lady of Beaujeu was taken up with quarrels with their cousin and brother-in-law, the Duke of Orleans, who thought he had a better right to be Regent than a woman; and when he could not rule, went off to Brittany and made mischief there. The Duke of Brittany had no son, and everybody wanted to marry his little daughter Anne. Orleans himself had hopes of getting himself divorced from his poor, good Jane, and marrying this young girl; and at last a battle was fought between the Bretons and French, in which Orleans was knocked down, and made prisoner. He was sent off to one castle after another; but his good wife Jane always followed him to do her best to comfort him, and never left him except to try to gain his pardon; but the Lady of Beaujeu knew better than to let him out as long as Anne of Brittany was not married. Indeed, the Lady thought the best thing would be if young Charles could marry Anne, and join the great dukedom to his dominions.

But, on the one hand, Charles was betrothed to Maximilian's daughter Margaret, and Anne to Maximilian himself; and, on the other, there was nothing the Bretons hated so much as the notion of being joined on to the French. They wanted the poor girl of fourteen to marry a grim old baron, Alan de Foix, who had eight children already, because they thought he would fight for the duchy. In the midst of the dispute, the Duke of Brit-

tany died, and poor young Anne had to strive for herself—on the one side against the French, who wanted to get her duchy into their hands; and on the other, against her own Bretons, who wanted to force her into taking old Alan d'Albret. She waited in vain for Maximilian, hoping he would come to her, as he had once come to Mary of Burgundy; and he was setting off,



FLEMISH BURGHERS RISING

when his son's Flemish subjects, jealous of his raising troops, rose in tumult; so that he had to hide in an apothecary's shop, till he was carried to prison in the castle at Bruges.

Anne of Beaujeu, in the meantime, raised an army and entered Brittany, taking one town after another. Still Anne of Brittany held out in her city



MEETING OF CHARLES AND ANNE OF BRITTANY.



of Rennes. But late one evening a young gentleman, with a small suite, came to the gates and desired to see the duchess. It was the king; and so sweet in manner, so gentle and knightly was he, that Duchess Anne forgot her objections, and consented to marry him. And so the duchy of Brittany was joined to the crown of France. The worst of it was, that Charles VIII. had been betrothed to Maximilian's daughter Margaret; but his sister cared little for scruples, and he was still under her charge. As soon as Charles and Anne were married, the Duke of Orleans was released.

Charles had always lived on romances, and wanted to be a king of romance himself. So he recollected the right to the kingdom of Naples which old King René had left to his father, and he gathered together one of the most splendid armies that ever was seen in France to go and conquer it for himself. Nobody in Italy was ready to oppose him, for the cities were all quarreling among themselves; and the Pope who was reigning then, Alexander VI., was one of the wickedest men who ever lived. All good men hoped that this young king would set things to rights—call a council of the Church, and have the court of Rome purified; but Charles was a mere youth, who cared as yet chiefly for making a grand knightly display; and he could not even keep his army in order, so that they did dreadful mischief to the people in Italy, and made themselves very much hated. He was crowned King of Naples, and then left a division of his army to guard the kingdom, while he rode back again the whole length of Italy, and on the way claimed the duchy of Milan for his brother-in-law, the Duke of Orleans, whose grandmother, Valentina Visconti, had been a daughter of the Duke of Milan.

The Italian States, however, had all leagued against him, and a great army gathered together to attack him at Fornova. Then he showed all the high spirit and bravery there was in him. He really seemed to grow bigger with joy and courage; he fought like a lion, and gained a grand victory, so that he could go home to Queen Anne feeling like a true knight.

But more goes to make a king than knighthood, and he did not keep up what he had conquered, nor send men or provisions to his army in Naples; so they were all driven out by the great Spanish captain, Gonzalo de Cordova, and only a remnant of them came home to France, in a miserable condition.

Charles began to think more deeply as he grew older. He lost both his infant sons, and his grief changed him a good deal. He read better books than the romances of chivalry; and as he had learnt truth, honor, and kindness before, so now he learnt piety, justice, and firmness. He resolved to live like St. Louis, and began, like him, sitting under the oak-tree to hear the causes of the rich and poor, and doing justice to all.

Above all, he knew how vain and foolish he had been in Italy, and what

a great opportunity he had thrown away of trying to get the terrible evils that were going on among the Pope and his cardinals cured, by helping the good men left in Italy, together with Maximilian and Henry VII., to call a council of the Church, and set matters to rights. He was just beginning to make arrangements for another expedition to make up for his former mistakes, when one day, as he was going through a dark passage leading to the tennis-court at Blois, he struck his forehead against the top of a doorway, was knocked backward, taken up senseless, and after lying in that state for a couple of hours, died, in the twenty-ninth year of his life and the fifteenth of his reign, in 1498. He was so much loved that one of his servants died of grief, and his noble temper had trained up in France such a race of knightly men as perhaps has never been seen at any other time.



#### CHAPTER XXVI.

LOUIS XII.

A.D. 1498-1515.

HARLES VIII. had lost both his children, so the throne went to Louis, Duke of Orleans, grandson to the second son of Charles V. He was a kindly man, when selfishness did not come in his way, and he was much admired for saying, when he was asked to punish some of his old enemies, that the King of France forgot all injuries to the Duke of Orleans. The first thing he did, however, was to bribe the wicked old Pope, Alexander VI., to separate him from his good, faithful wife, Jane, who went into a convent and

spent the rest of her life in praying for him; while he married Anne of Brittany, in order to keep her duchy united with the crown. She was a very noble and high-spirited queen, and kept her court in such excellent order, that the time of good Queen Anne has always been looked back to as the very best time of the French court.

Louis was a vain man, and could not rest till he had done as much as Charles VIII. So he allied himself with the Pope, set off into Italy with another brilliant army, and seized Milan. He did not himself go to Naples, but he sent thither an army, who seized a large portion of the kingdom; but then the Spanish King Ferdinand persuaded Louis to make peace, and divide the kingdom of Naples in half. But while the two kings and their

ministers were settling where the division should be, the soldiers in the kingdom itself were constantly quarreling, and the war went on there just as if the kings were not making a treaty. At first the French had the advantage, for their knights were courage itself, especially one whose name was Bayard, and who was commonly called "the fearless and blameless



THE FRENCH SEIZE MILAN.

knight." The Spaniards, with Gonzalo de Cordova, their captain, were shut up in the city of Barletta, and stood a long, weary siege; but he was wonderfully patient, and held out till fresh troops came out to him from Spain, and then he beat the French completely at the battle of Cerignola, and then drove them out, city by city, castle by castle, as he had done once before.

The Italians themselves hated both French and Spaniards alike, and only wanted to get Italy free of them; but instead of all joining openly together against them, their little states and princes took different sides, according to what they thought most likely to be profitable, though in a battle they did not much care whom they killed, so long as he was a foreigner. A clever Florentine, named Machiavelli, wrote a book called "The Prince," in which he made out that craft and trickery was the right way for small states to prosper and overthrow their enemies; and this spirit of falsehood was taken for good policy, and is known by his name.

The manner of fighting was curious. Able captains used to get together bands of men-at-arms, who had been trained to skill in warfare, but who did not care on what side they fought, provided they were paid well, allowed to plunder the towns they took, and to make prisoners, whom they put to ransom. Some of these bands were on horseback, some on foot, and the most feared of all among the foot-soldiers were the Swiss, who were very terrible with their long pikes, and would hire themselves out to any one who paid them well; but if they did not get money enough, were apt to mutiny and

go over to the other side.

The wicked Pope, Alexander VI., was poisoned by drinking by mistake the wine he had meant to poison another person with; and the new Pope, Julius II., made a league with Louis and Maximilian against the Venetians. It was called the League of Cambrai, but no sooner had the brave French army gained and given to Julius the towns he had been promised, than he turned again to his Italian hatred of the foreigner, and deserted their cause. He made another league, which he called the Holy League, with the Emperor Maximilian, the Spanish Ferdinand, and Henry VIII. of England, for driving the French out of Italy. This was the sort of bad faith that Machiavelli had taught men to think good policy.

The French army in Italy was attacked by the Spaniards and Italians, and though the brave young general, Gaston de Foix, Duke of Nemours, gained a grand battle at Ravenna, he was killed at the close of the day; and the French having everybody against them, were driven back out of the duchy of Milan, and over the Alps, and entirely out of Italy. Louis XII. could not send help to them, for Ferdinand was attacking him in the south of France, and Henry VIII. in the north. The sister of the Duke of Nemours was the second wife of Ferdinand, and he said she ought to be Queen of Navarre; and as the real queen was wife to a French count, Ferdinand seized the little kingdom, and left only the possessions that belonged to the French side of the family; so that henceforth the King of Navarre was only a French noble.

Henry VIII. brought a fine army with him, with which he besieged and took the city of Tournay, and fought a battle at Enguingate, in which the

French were taken by surprise; a panic seized them, they left their brave knights, Bayard among them, to be made prisoners, and galloped off so fast that there were only forty men killed, and the English called it the Battle of the Spurs.

Terouenne was also taken, and Louis thought it time to make peace. His wife, Anne of Brittany, was just dead. She had had only two daughters, Claude and Renée; and as Claude was heiress of Brittany, it was thought well to marry her to Francis, Duke of Angoulême, who was first cousin to her father, and who would be King of France. Francis was a fine, handsome, graceful young man, but he had a very bad mother, Louise of Savoy. Queen Anne knew Claude would not be made happy, and tried hard to prevent the match, but she could not succeed, and she died soon after it was concluded. Louis then offered himself to marry Henry's youngest sister, Mary, the most beautiful princess in Europe, and she was obliged to consent. Louis was not an old man, but he had been long obliged to take great care of his health, and the feastings and pageants with which he received his young bride quite wore him out, so that he died at the end of six weeks, on the New Year's Day of 1515.

He is sometimes called the father of his people, though he does not seem to have done much for their good, only taxed them heavily for his wars in Italy; but his manners were pleasant, and that went for a great deal with the French. The Italian wars, though very bad in themselves, improved the French in taste by causing them to see the splendid libraries and buildings, and the wonderful collections of statues, gems, and vases of the old Greek times, which the Italian princes were making, and those most beautiful pictures that were being produced by the greatest artists who have ever lived. This brought in a love of all these forms of beauty, and from that time forward the French gentlemen were much more cultivated than they had been in the old knightly days, though, unfortunately, they were much less religious, for the sight of those wicked Popes had done them all much harm.



### CHAPTER XXVII.

FRANCIS I .- YOUTH.

A.D. 1515-1526.

RANCIS I., the new King of France, was twenty years old, and very brilliant, handsome, gracious, brave, and clever, with his head full of chivalrous notions, but with no real sense of religion to keep him up to the truth and honor that are the most real part of chivalry.

To conquer Italy was, as usual, his first notion, and he set out across the Alps; but the Swiss had turned against him, and blocked up his way at Marignano. There was a terrible battle, beginning late in the day, and when night came on

everything was in confusion. The king lay down to rest on a cannon, and asked for some water; but the only water that could be found was red with blood, and he turned from it, sickened. All night the great cow-horns, which were the signal of the Swiss troops, were heard blowing, to gather them together; but the French rallied sooner, and won a complete victory, which was very much thought of, as no one had ever beaten the Swiss before. When it was over, Francis knelt down before Bayard, and desired to be dubbed a knight by him, as the bravest and truest of knights. When this was done, Bayard kissed his sword, and declared that it should never be put to any meaner use.

After this, Francis went on to take possession of Milan; and he had an interview with the Pope at Bologna. It was a new Pope, called Leo X., a man very fond of art and learning, and everything beautiful, though he cared little for duty or religion. He made an agreement with Francis, which is called the Concordat of Bologna. By this the king gave the Pope certain payments every year for ever, and gave up the calling synods of his clergy regularly; and the Pope, in return, gave the king the right for himself and his successors of appointing all the bishops, deans, abbots, and abbesses in France for ever. Nothing ever did so much harm in France, for the courtiers used to get bad men, little children, and all sorts of unfit persons appointed, for the sake of their lands and wealth; and the clergy, being hindered from taking counsel together, grew more idle and dull. The people were taught nothing good, and every sin that they were prone to grew worse and worse.

Francis himself was a spoilt child, caring only for pleasure and what he called glory. He wanted to be Emperor of Germany, and tried to get Henry VIII. to help him; and they had a great meeting at Ardres (near Calais), when such splendors in tents, ornaments, and apparel were displayed, that the conference was known as the Field of the Cloth of Gold. The two kings were both joyous young men, and they wrestled and played together like two boys; but nothing came of this display, for Henry really preferred the young King Charles of Spain, who was grandson to the Emperor Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy, and thus inherited the Low Countries.



THE CATHEDRAL OF MILAN.

When Maximilian died, Francis offered himself for the empire, and told the electors they were to think of him and Charles, not as enemies, but as rivals for the same lady. This, however, was only a fine speech, for Francis was much discontented when Charles was chosen emperor, and began a war again at once; but all he got by this was, that the Italians rose and drove his army out of Milan. Another misfortune befel him. His mother, Louise of Savoy, who had always spoilt him, and whom he gave way to more than any one else, was so foolish as to fall in love with Charles, Duke of Bour-

bon and Constable of France; and when the Constable laughed at her, she resolved to ruin him, and made the king most unjustly decide against him in a suit about his lands. The Constable was so angry that he went to Spain, and offered to serve Charles against his king and country. He was so good a captain that Charles was glad; but every one felt that he was a



SPANISH TROOPS ON THE MARCH.

disgraced man, and the old Spanish noble in whose castle the emperor lodged him would not so much as shake hands with him. However, he was with the army that Charles sent into Italy to meet that with which Francis tried to regain Milan. In a little battle near Ivrea, the good knight, Bayard, was shot through the back. The French were retreating before the

enemy, and were forced to leave him lying under a tree; but the Spaniards treated him with the deepest respect, and when the Constable de Bourbon came to him, it was with much grief and sorrow. "Sir," said the dying Bayard, "you need not pity me for dying in my duty, like a brave man; but I pity you greatly for serving against your king, your country, and your oath." And Bayard set up his cross-handled sword before him, and died as a true and good knight.

But Bourbon did not take warning. He actually led a Spanish army to invade his own country, and ravaged Provence; but all the French rallied under Francis, and he was driven back. Then Francis himself crossed the Alps, hoping to recover what he had lost in Italy, and for a time he had the advantage; but Charles's best general, the Marquis of Pescara, marched against him while he was besieging Pavia. There was a terrible battle, fought on the 24th of February, 1525. Francis was too hasty in supposing the victory was his, charged with all his horse, got entangled in the firm Spanish squadrons, and was surrounded, wounded, and obliged to yield himself as a prisoner. Most of his best knights were killed round him, and in a fortnight after the battle there was not a Frenchman in Lombardy who was not a prisoner.

The Marquis of Pescara treated Francis respectfully, and he was sent as a prisoner to Madrid, where he was closely guarded; and Charles, who had given out as his object to break the pride of France, would only release him upon very hard terms—namely, that he should yield up all his pretensions to any part of Italy, renounce the sovereignty of the Low Countries, make Henry d'Albret give up his claim to Navarre, and marry Charles's sister Eleanor, giving his two sons as hostages till this was carried out. Francis was in despair, and grew so ill that his sister Margaret came from Paris to nurse him, when he declared that he would rather abdicate his throne than thus cripple his kingdom. If he had held to that resolution, he would have been honored for ever; but he had no real truth in him, and after about ten months' captivity, he brought himself to engage to do all that was demanded of him; but, at the same time, he made a protest, before a few of his French friends, that he only signed the treaty with Charles because he was a prisoner and in his power, and that he should not think himself bound to keep it when he was free. If any Spaniard had heard him, this would have been fair; but as no one knew of it but the French, it was a shameful deceit. However, he signed and swore to whatever Charles chose, and then was escorted back to the borders, where, on the river Bidassua, he met his two young sons, who were to be exchanged for him; and after embracing them, and giving them up to the Spaniards, he landed, mounted his horse, made it bound into the air, and, waving his sword above his head, cried out,

I am yet a king!" He had better have been an honest man; but though

his first thought was how to break the treaty, he was at first so glad to get home that he spent his time in pleasures. He had one or two good and noble tastes. He was so fond of those great artists who were then living, that some of their very grandest pictures were painted for him, such as Raffaelles beautiful picture of the Archangel St. Michael; and Leonardo da Vinci, one of the greatest of painters, found a home with him, and died at last in his arms.



#### CHAPTER XXVIII.

FRANCIS I .- MIDDLE AGE.

A.D. 1526-1547.

HE other nations of Europe thought that the emperor was too hard upon Francis, and they were the more inclined to join against him when the Imperial army, without any orders to that effect, marched to Rome, under the Constable de Bourbon, and actually took the city. Bourbon himself was shot dead in the assault, and there was no one to stop the troops in the horrible savage crnelties and profanations they committed. The Pope gave himself up as prisoner, and Charles could make what terms he pleased. Francis found he could

not stand up against him, so the mother of the French king (Louise of Savoy) and the aunt of the emperor (Margaret of Austria) met at Cambrai, and made what was called the Ladies' Peace, which gave France somewhat better terms than the treaty of Madrid had done.

Things were very bad in France just then, and good and earnest men longed to set them right. John Calvin, a man of much learning, who had been intended for a priest, had, during his course of study, come to think that much of the teaching of the Church of Rome was mistaken, and he put forth books which were eagerly read by great numbers, especially by the king's sister Margaret, who had married the dispossessed King of Navarre; and by his sister-in-law, Renée, the Duchess of Ferrara.

The king himself liked very well to laugh at the greedy and vicious ways of the clergy he had got about him, and he was too clever a man not to see that they let the people be taught a great deal that was foolish, and could not be true; but Calvin and his friends condemned strongly all his own easy, pleasure-loving ways of life. A real good priest of the Church would have done just the same; but Francis did not bring good ones about

him, and the Calvinist teaching made him angry. Besides, Calvin condemned things that were right as well as things that were wrong, and his followers shocked many devout and reverent spirits by treating all the things that they had always thought sacred as idols. Some one broke a statue of the Blessed Virgin in the streets of Paris, and this led to a cry on the part of the people that such things should not be allowed to go on. The persons who were pointed out as Calvinists were seized; and when they showed how little they agreed with the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church, they were delivered over by the clergy to the State, and burnt alive, according to the cruel laws for dealing with heretics.

But their brethren were only the firmer in their doctrine, and hated the Romish Church the more for thus trying to put down the truths that contradicted some of her teachings. The Calvinists were called in France Huguenots, though no one quite knows why. The most likely explanation is, that it is from two Swiss words, meaning "oath-comrades," because they were all sworn brothers. Calvin himself, when he could not safely stay in France, accepted an invitation from the Reformers of Geneva to come and guide them, and thence he sent out rules which guided the French

Huguenots.

Margaret, the Queen of Navarre, thought with the Huguenots that much was wrong in her Church, but she would rather have set the Church right; and her brother, the king, never allowed measures to be taken for driving her to break with the Church. Her only child, Jane, was, however, brought up an ardent Huguenot. She was a determined, high-spirited little girl; and when, in her twelfth year, her uncle, King Francis, wanted to marry her to the dull, heavy Duke of Cleves, and send her off to Flanders, she cried and entreated till the good-natured king could hardly bear it. When the poor little bride was dressed, against her will, she either could not stand under the weight of her jewels or she would not try, and her uncle bade the stout Constable de Montmorency take her in his arms and carry her to the church, and so the wedding was gone through; but before the feasts were over, or she could be carried to Cleves, Francis heard news of the duke's having made friends with the emperor, and was very glad to be able to say that, as the bride had never consented, the marriage was null and void. Jane afterwards married Antony, Duke of Bourbon, who was always called King of Navarre in her right, though the Spaniards had all the real kingdom of Navarre, and she only had the little French counties of Béarn and Foix, but here she fostered the Huguenots with all her might.

Charles V. and Francis kept up a war for most of their lives, but without any more great battles. Francis would do anything, however disgraceful, to damage Charles; and though he was persecuting the Calvinists at home, he helped and made friends with the Protestants in Germany, because

they were the emperor's great trouble; and again, because Charles was at war with the Turks and the Moors, Francis allied himself with them. However, as he deserved, his treachery profited him little, for the emperor gained a fast hold on Italy, and, moreover, invaded Provence; but the Count de Montmorency laid waste every town, village, and farm in his way, so that his army found nothing to eat, and he was forced to retreat, though, in truth, the poor Provençals suffered just as much from their own side as



CHARLES V.

they could have done from the enemy. However, Montmorency was made Constable of France as a reward.

After this, peace was made for a time, and Charles, who wanted to go in haste from Spain to Flanders, asked leave to pass through France; and Francis admired himself immensely for receiving him most courteously, sending the Dauphin to meet him, and entertaining him magnificently. But at one of the banquets, we are told that Francis pointed to the Duchess of Chatelherault, saying, "Here's a lady who says I am a great fool to let you go free." The emperor took the hint and dropped a costly ring into the gold basin that the duchess held to him to wash his hands in.

He departed in safety, but no sooner did Francis hear of his being in

trouble in his own domains, than all promises were again broken, and the war began again. This time Henry VIII. was very angry with his bad faith, and joined the emperor to punish it. Charles invaded Champagne, and Henry landed at Calais, and besieged and took Boulogne. However, the emperor first made peace, and then Henry, who promised, in eight years' time, to give back Boulogne for a ransom of two million crowns. Just after this peace was made Henry died, and Francis only lived two months after him, dying in January, 1547, when only fifty-three years old. Poor Queen Claude had long been dead, and he had married the emperor's sister Eleanor, to whom he did not behave better than to Claude. She had had no children, and most of Claude's were weakly and delicate, so that only two survived their father—Henry, who had been the second son, but had become Dauphin; and Margaret, the youngest daughter.



### CHAPTER XXIX.

HENRY II.

A.D. 1547-1559.

ENRY II., the son of Francis I., had better qualities than his vain and faithless father, and if he had lived in better times, and had good men about him, he might have been an excellent person. He was not one of the men, however, who can change the whole face of a country for good, but was led along in the stream: his grandmother and father had made the whole court wicked and corrupt, while, now that the Church of France had lost its freedom, the clergy were so much in bondage that nobody dared to speak plain truths to

the king, and he went on in sin unrebuked.

The Calvinists (or Huguenots), who read the Bible and tried to keep the Commandments, looked at the wicked court with horror, and declared that the way the clergy let it go on was a sign that their Church could not be true; and, on the other hand, the young nobles mixed up Calvinism and strictness of life in their fancies, and laughed at both; and so the two parties made one another worse.

The king was a kind-hearted man, and very constant in his affections. His greatest friend was the Constable de Montmorency, to whom he held fast all his life; and his other strongest feeling was for a beautiful lady

called Diana of Poitiers. She was a widow, and he wore her colors (black and silver) and twisted her initial (D.) up with his own (H.) in his device, without ever being made to see how wrong it was to forsake his wife Catherine, who had been chosen for him when his father wanted to make friends in Italy. She was the daughter of the great Florentine family of Medici, and was very wary and cunning, living so quietly while her husband neglected her, that no one guessed how much ability she had. She had a large family, and the eldest son, Francis, was betrothed to the infant Mary, Queen of Scots, who was sent from her own kingdom to be brought up with her young husband in the court of France.

Henry went on with the war with the emperor, and would not let the French bishops go to Trent, where Charles was trying to get together a council of the Church, to set to rights the evils that had led to the separations. Henry had one very able general, Francis de Lorraine, Duke of Guise (a son of that René, Duke of Lorraine, who may be remembered as the grandson to old King René). He sent this general to seize the city of Metz, which he declared he had a right to; and there Guise shut himself up and stood a siege by the emperor himself, until hunger and famine made

such havoe in the besieging army that they were forced to retreat.

The emperor was growing old, and suffered much from the gout, and he longed for rest and time to prepare himself for death. So he decided on resigning his erowns, and going and spending the remainder of his life in a Spanish monastery. He gave the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and the kingdoms of Spain and the two Sieilies, with Lombardy and the Low Countries, to his son, Philip II., who was married to Mary Tudor, Queen of England. This made the English join in the war against Henry II., and a small, brave body was sent to the Spanish army, which, with Philip himself, was besieging St. Quentin, a town on the borders of Picardy. One of the bravest men in France (a Huguenot nobleman), Gaspar de Chatillon, Admiral de Coligny, was defending the town, and his brother, the Sieur d'Andelot, tried hard to break through and bring him provisions, but he was beaten back; and there was a great battle fought on the 10th of August, 1557, before the walls, when the Constable de Montmoreney, who commanded the French, was entirely beaten. He was himself made prisoner, four thousand men were killed, and Coligny was forced to surrender. France had not suffered such a defeat since the battle of Agincourt; and Philip was so thankful for this victory of St. Quentin, that, as it happened upon St. Lawrence's Day, he built, in Spain, a palace and a convent all in one, the ground plan of which was shaped like the gridiron, or bars of iron, on which St., Lawrence was roasted to death. However, it was some comfort to the French that the Duke of Gnise managed to take by surprise the city of Calais which the English had held ever since the time of Edward III., and

which was their last French possession. But other mischances forced Henry to make peace; and at Chateau Cambresis, in 1559, a treaty was signed which put an end to the long Italian wars that had been begun by Charles VIII. nearly seventy years before. After this, there were great rejoicings; but the persecution of the Calvinists was carried on with the more rigor, and the king and all his court, even the ladies, used to be present at the burnings in the market-place. One poor tailor, on his way to the stake, turned round and gave the king a last look, which, it was said, Henry never forgot all the days of his life.

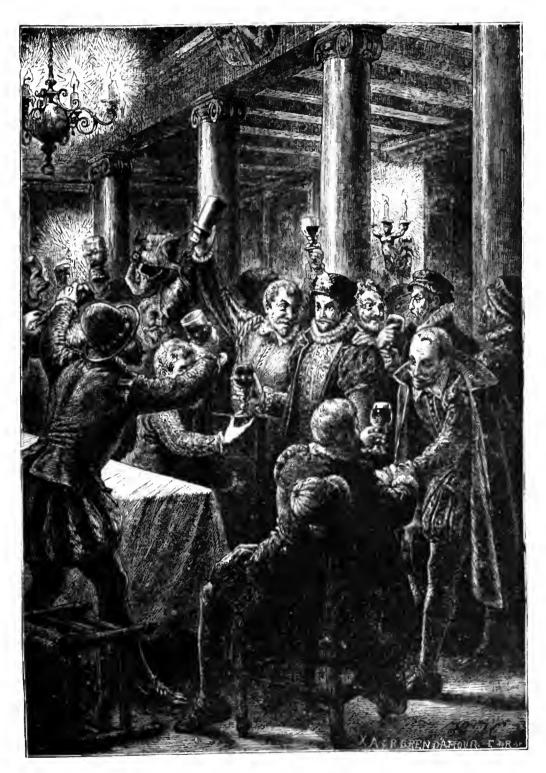
These days were not, however, very long afterward. One of the unjust acts Francis had done was the seizing the little dukedom of Savoy, in the Alps, and adding it to his kingdom. The landless Duke of Savoy had gone and served in the Spanish army, and was an able general-indeed, it was he who had really gained the battle of St. Quentin; and one article in the peace of Chateau Cambresis had been that the French should give him back his dukedom and marry him to Margaret, the only sister of Henry. The wedding festivities were intended to be very magnificent, and Henry began them with a splendid tournament, like those of the old times of knighthood. when the knights, in full armor, rode against each other with their heavy lances. Henry himself took part in this one, and tried to unhorse the Sieur des Lorges, eldest son of the Count de Montgomery. There was generally very little danger to men in steel armor, but as these two met, the point of Des Lorges' lance pierced a joint in the visor of Henry's helmet, and penetrated his eye and his brain. He was carried from the lists, and lay speechless for two days; and, in the meantime, his sister was hastily married in private to the Duke of Savoy, that his death might not delay the fulfilment of the treaty. He died on the 29th of June, 1559, leaving four sons (Francis, Charles, Henry, and Hercules) and three daughters (Elizabeth, Claude, and Margaret), all very young. Some fortune-teller told their mother, Catherine de Medicis, that her sons would be all kings; and this made her very uneasy, as she thought it must mean that they would all die, one after the other, without heirs, like the three sons of the wicked Philip the Fair. However, though the fortune-teller was nearly right, he was not entirely so.



## CHAPTER XXX.

HE next two reigns, though they are, of course, called the reigns of Francis II. and Charles IX., were really the reign of their mother, Catherine de Medicis. Francis was only fifteen when he lost his father, and was weakly and delicate; and though his mother took the chief management of affairs, she knew that he did not care for her half so much as for his young wife Mary, Queen of Scots, who despised her for not being a born queen, like herself, but only of a race of Italian merchants.

Mary's mother had been a sister of the Duke of Guise, and Catherine knew that she would help her uncle forward. Besides, the duke was the handsomest and bravest gentleman in France, and had such gracious manners that all loved him. He was quite the head of the zealous Roman Catholics, and Catherine wanted to keep him down. So, as she did not much care for any religion, she made friends with the chiefs of the Huguenots. Queen Jane of Navarre was the real chief, for she had made her little county of Béarn quite Calvinist; but her husband, Autony, Duke of Bourbon, loved amusement more than anything else, and never cared enough to make up his mind. However, his brother Louis, Prince of Condé, saw that they would be thought more of by the Huguenots than by the other party; and though not a very religious man, he was sincere in thinking the Roman errors wrong. So these two drew Antony their way. Besides, the Admiral de Coligny, who had defended St. Quentin, was a thoroughly good, pious, sincere man, and was much looked up to as the noblest of the Huguenots. Condé hated nothing so much as the Duke of Guise, and he had a plan for seizing him and the young king, but it was found out in time; and Guise, on his side, laid a plan for inviting the prince and his brother (who was always called the King of Navarre) into the king's chamber. Francis was to eall out, "Here, guards!" and the guards were to dash in and seize or kill the two brothers. But Francis could not make up his mind to do such a cruel, treacherous thing; so he would not give the word, and let the princes go safely. Guise was very angry, and said he was a coward; but it was happy for the poor boy that he was kept from this evil deed, for it was



CALVINISTS IN LEAGUE.



the last act of his life. He died of a swelling in the ear, in his seventeenth year, in 1560. His wife, Queen Mary, went back to Scotland; and his brother, Charles IX., who was only twelve years old, began to reign.

The Duke of Guise lost power at court when his niece went away, and Catherine listened more to Condé. Indeed, she consented that the chief Calvinist ministers should have a conference at Passy with the bishops, to try if they could not be reconciled to the Church; but though they began peaceably, the argument soon ended in a quarrel. However, the Hugnenots were allowed to hold meetings for worship, provided it was not in a walled



PRINCE OF CONDE.

town, or where they could disturb Catholics; and in their joy at gaining so much, they ventured to do much more; and wherever they were the stronger, they knocked down the crosses and the images of the saints, and did all they could to show their dislike of the Catholic worship.

At Vassy, where the mother of the Duke of Guise lived, there was a barn where the Huguenots used to meet. When her son was visiting her, she complained of them; and when he went to church on Sunday, he heard them singing. His followers were very angry at what they thought impertinence, broke into the barn, made a riot, and killed several. This was the

beginning of the great war between the Catholics and the Huguenots-a sad and terrible one. It was interrupted by many short times of peace, but it would be tedious to enumerate all the wars and all the treaties. The chief thing to be remembered is, that a Guise was always at the head of the Catholics, and a Bourbon at the head of the Huguenots; and that though the queen was a Catholic, she sometimes favored the Huguenots, for fear of the Guises; but she was so false that nobody could believe a word she said. The most honest man at court was old Constable de Montmorency, but he was terribly stern and cruel, and every one feared him. The city of Rouen fell into the hands of the Huguenots, and Guise besieged it; but in the course of the siege he was shot by a murderer named Poltrot, and died in a few hours. His son Henry, who was very young at the time, always believed that the murderer had been sent by the Admiral de Coligny; and though this is not at all likely, the whole family vowed vengeance against him. During this siege, Antony, Duke of Bourbon (called King of Navarre), was also killed. He was no great loss to the Huguenots, for he had gone over to the other side, and his wife, Queen Jane, was freer to act without him.

Old Montmoreney was killed not long after, in a battle with the Prince of Condé, near St. Denis; and the queen thought the Huguenots so prosperous that she said, in a light way, to one of her ladies, "Well, we shall have to say our prayers in French." Her sons were beginning to grow up. She did not like to put the king forward, lest he should learn to govern, and take away her power; but her third son, Henry, the Duke of Anjou, was very handsome and elever, and quite her favorite, for he was as false and cruel as herself. In the battle of Jarnae, he commanded. The Prince of Condé, who was on the other side, had his arm in a sling, from a hurt received a few days before; and just as he had ridden to the head of his troops a horse kieked and broke his leg; but he would not give up, and rode into the battle as he was. He was defeated, and taken prisoner. He was lifted off his horse; and while he sat under a tree, for he could not stand, a friend of the Duke of Anjou shot him through the head.

The Queen of Navarre felt that she must come to the head of her party. She had one son, Henry, Prince of Béarn. As soon as he was born, his grandfather had rubbed his lips with a clove of garlic, and bidden him be a brave man; and the eradle he was rocked in, a great tortoise's shell, is still kept at Pau, in Béarn. He had run about on the hills with the shepherd lads to make him strong and hardy; and Queen Jane had had him most carefully taught both religion and learning, so that he was a boy of great promise. He was fifteen years old at this time; and his cousin Henry, son of the Prince of Condé, was about the same age. Queen Jane took them to the head of the Huguenot army, and all were de-

lighted to serve under them, while Admiral de Coligny managed their affairs.

Under him and Queen Jane they prospered more than before, and Queen Catherine began to see that she should never put them down by force. She pretended to make friends with them, and she and her son, Charles IX., made them grants that affronted all the zealous Roman Catholies very much; but it was all for the sake of getting them into her power. She offered to marry her daughter Margaret to the Prince of Béarn, and invited him to her court. Poor Queen Jane could not bear to let her boy go, for she knew what would happen. Catherine kept a whole troop of young ladies about her, who were called the Queen Mother's Squadron, and who made it their business, with their light songs, idle talk, and pleasant evil habits, to corrupt all the young men who came about them. Now Jane's little court was grave, strict, and dull, and Henry enjoyed the change. Catherine read Italian poetry with him, put amusements in his way, and found it only too easy to laugh him out of the strict notions of his home. Poor Jane tried to keep up his love; she wrote to him about his dogs and horses, and all he used to care for; but cunning Catherine took care never to have mother and son at her court together. She sent Henry home before she invited his mother to the court. When Jane came, Catherine said to one of her friends, "I cannot understand this queen; she will always be reserved with me." "Put her in a passion," was the answer; "then she will tell you all her secrets." But Jane never would be put in a passion, and Catherine could get no power over her.

While still at court, Jane fell suddenly ill and died. Every one thought Catherine had poisoned her. There was a man about court, a perfumer, whom people called, in whispers, "The Queen's Poisoner."



# CHAPTER XXXI.

CHARLES IX.

A.D. 1572-1574.

OOR young Charles IX. would have been a good man if his mother would have allowed him; but she taught him that the way to reign was to deceive, and he was so much afraid of her that he choked all his better feelings. She was exceedingly afraid of the Huguenots, and thought they were conspiring against her; and the young Henry, Duke of Guise, was ready to do anything to be revenged on Coligny, whom he viewed as his father's murderer. So, to get the Huguenots into her power, Catherine invited all their chief nobles to come to the

wedding of her daughter Margaret with young Henry, who had become King of Navarre. The Pope would not give leave for the princess to marry one who stood outside the Church, but the queen forged his consent; and the poor bride, who was in love with the Duke of Guise, was so unwilling, that, at the wedding itself, when she was asked if she would have this man for her husband, she would not say yes; but her brother Charles pushed her head down into a nod, to stand for yes.

Coligny and all his friends had come to the wedding; and the king was so much delighted with the brave, honest old soldier, that Catherine thought she should lose all her power over him. One day, Coligny was shot in the streets of Paris by a murderer; and though only his hands were shattered, he was so ill that the king came to see him, and all his friends mustered round him to protect him. Thereupon, Catherine settled with her son, the Duke of Anjou, and the Duke of Guise, that, when the bell of the Church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois, close to the palaee of the Tuileries, should begin to ring at midnight before St. Bartholemew's Day, the people of Paris, who were all devoted to the Duke of Guise, should rise upon the Huguenots who were lodging in their houses, and kill them all at once. It was hard to get King Charles to consent, for there were many Huguenots whom he had learnt to love; but when he found that he could not save Coligny, he said, "Let them all die; let none live to reproach me." However, he called into his own bedroom those whom he most wished to savenamely, his good doctor and his old nurse; but there were a great many more in the palace, attending upon the young King of Navarre, and every one of these was slaughtered, except one man, who dashed into Queen Margaret's room and clung to her. Everywhere murder was going on. The followers of Guise wore white scarves on one arm, that they might know one another in the dark; and a troop of them rushed in, slew good old Coligny in his bedroom, and threw the corpse out at the window. His chaplain escaped over the roof, and hid in a hayloft, where a hen came every day and laid an egg, which was all he had to live on. All the rabble of Paris were slaying and plundering their neighbors, and in all the other towns where the Huguenots were the weakest the same horrid work was going on. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew is the deadliest crime in the history of France. The young king was half mad that night. He is said to have shot from the palace window at some whom he saw running away; and though this may not be true, it is quite certain that he drew his sword against the King of Navarre and Prince of Condé, and would have struck them, if his young wife, Elizabeth of Austria, had not heard of it, and ran in, as she was, with her hair hanging down, entreating him to spare them: and their lives were given them on condition that they would return to the Church, which they did; but they were watched and forced to live like a sort of prisoners at court.

When Queen Elizabeth of England heard of this shocking day, she dressed herself and all her court in mourning, and would not speak to the French ambassador. She broke off the plans for marrying her to the Duke of Anjou—a scheme on which Catherine de Medicis was much set, as it would have made her third son a king without the death of the second. However, a kingdom did come to him, for the old realm of Poland always chose the king by election by all the nobles, and their choice fell upon Henry, Duke of Anjou. He did not like going to that wild country, away from all the amusements of Paris, and delayed as long as he could, but he was forced to set off at last.

Meantime, the poor young king was broken-hearted. He tried to forget the horrors of the night of St. Bartholomew, and the good men he had learnt to love and respect, while he was only drawing them into a trap. He went out hunting, rode violently for long distances, and blew furious blasts on his hunting-horn; but nothing could drive away that horrible remembrance, and all that he did was to hurt his own health. His lungs were injured; and whenever a bleeding came on, it seemed to him that he was in the midst of the blood of the Huguenots. All the comfort he had was in his old nurse and surgeon, whom he had saved; for his mother was too busy trying to secure the throne for his brother to attend to him, and kept him closely watched lest his grief for the massacre should be known. So he died in the year 1574, when only twenty-three years old,

and his last words were, "If our Lord Jesus will have mercy on me!" And

so we may hope that his repentance was true.

The war with the Huguenots was still going on when he died, for though Coligny was slain, and the King of Navarre still watched and guarded at court, there were enough nobles left alive, especially in the south



A PREACHING OF THE HUGUENOTS.

of France, to hold out against their enemies. Everybody was growing dreadfully cruel on both sides. It was the fashion to boast of killing as many as possible. If the troops of the queen and Duke of Guise came on a preaching of the Huguenots, they burnt the building, and slew every one who came out of it; and if the Huguenots found a church or convent not defended, they did not use the monks or nuns much better. The Count de Montgomery, whose lance had caused the death of Henry II., was on the Huguenot side, and had some ships, with which he sailed about, capturing all the vessels that came in his way, and plundering them. It was a miserable time, and every one watched anxiously for the new king; but though he was delighted to leave Poland, and galloped away in the night from Cracow as if he were a thief, for fear the Poles should stop him, he was in no hurry to take all the troubles of his French kingdom upon him, but went out of his way to Italy, and stayed there amusing himself, while all the time the Duke of Guise was growing more and more strong, and a greater favorite with the people of Paris, who would do anything for him. Catherine, too, was trying to marry her fourth son, the Duke of Alençon, to Queen Elizabeth, who pretended to think about it, and even sent for him to see her; but it was all in order to keep the peace with France—she never really meant it—and the duke was an ugly little spiteful youth, whom everybody at court hated and feared.



### CHAPTER XXXII.

HENRY III.

A.D. 1574.

HE new king, Henry III., was a strange person. He seemed to have used up all his spirit and sense at the battle of Jarnac, which had made people think him a hero; and though he was not a coward in battle, he had no boldness in thinking of danger—no moral courage in making up his mind. On his way home through Savoy, he saw Louise de Vaudémont, a beautiful girl, a cousin of the Duke of Guise, and determined to marry her. Queen Catherine tried to prevent it, because Mary of Scotland had been so haughty with her, and poor

Louise herself was betrothed to a man she loved; but the king would not be withstood, and she led a dreary life with him. He cared for little but fine clothes, his own beauty, and a sort of religion that did him no good. He slept in a mask and gloves for the sake of his complexion, and painted his face; and every day he stood over his wife to see her hair dressed, and chose her ornaments. He had a set of friends like himself, who were called his mignons, or darlings, and were fops like him; but they all wore rosaries, of which the beads were carved like skulls; and they, king and all, used to

go in procession, barefoot and covered with sackcloth, to the churches in Paris, with whips in their hands, with which to flog one another in penance for their sins. Yet they were horribly cruel, and thought nothing of murder. If one of them was killed, the king would go and weep over him, take out the earrings he had himself given him, and then become just as fond of another mignon. Henry was also very fond of little dogs; he used to carry a basket of them slung round his neck, and fill his carriage with them when he went out with the queen, generally to church, where he used to stick illuminations, cut out of old books of devotion, upon the wall.

Henry of Navarre stayed in this disgraceful court for nearly two years longer; but at last, in 1576, he grew ashamed of the life he was leading, fled away to the Huguenot army in the south of France, and professed himself a Calvinist again. He soon showed that he was by far the ablest leader that the Huguenots had had, and he obtained another peace, and also that his wife Margaret should be sent to him to his little court at Nérae; but she had been entirely spoilt by her mother's wicked court, and had very little sense of right or wrong. The pair never loved one another; and as they had no children, there was nothing to draw them together, though they were friendly and civil to one another, and Margaret tried to help her husband by the lively court she kept, and the letters she wrote to her friends at Paris.

Even the Duke of Alençon, the youngest brother, could not bear the life at Henry's court, and fled from it. At one time the Dutch, who had revolted from Philip of Spain, invited him to put himself at their head; but he did them no good, and on his way home he died. He had never been worth anything, but his death made a great difference, for Henry III. had no children; and as women could neither reign in France themselves nor leave any rights to their children, the nearest heir to the crown was Henry of Navarre, whose forefather, the first Count of Bourbon, had been a son of St. Louis.

Everybody knew he was the right heir; but to have a Calvinist king to reign over them seemed so frightful to all the more zealous Catholics, that they formed themselves into a society, which they called a League for maintaining the Church, and the great object of which was to keep Henry of Navarre from being King of France. The Duke of Guise was at the head of this League, which was so powerful, especially at Paris, that he could do almost everything, and threatened and cowed the king till Henry was almost a prisoner in his hands. There was a third party—Catholies, but loyal, and with the Count de Montmorency at their head—and these were the persons to whom Henry trusted most. He was fond of his bright, kindly brother-in-law, the King of Navarre, and never would do anything to prevent him from succeeding, although he found that it was not safe to remain in Paris,

DEATH OF THE DUKE OF GUISE



and went to his palace at Blois. Here he framed a plot for freeing himself from the Duke of Guise. He placed guards on whom he could depend under the staircase and in his ante-room; and when Guise came to visit the king in early morning, they fell upon him, threw him down, and murdered him. His brother, the Cardinal of Guise, was killed the same day; and Henry went up to his mother, Queen Catherine, who was ill in bed, to tell her that he was free from his enemy; but she saw plainly that he was only bringing more trouble on himself. "You have cut," she said; "can you sew up again? Have you thought of all that you will bring on yourself?" He said he had done so. "Then you must be prompt and firm," she said; but she did not live to help him through his difficulties. She died a fortnight later, having done the most cruel harm to her children, her country, and her Church.

Henry was far from able to sew up again. All the Lengue was mad with rage. Gnise's sons were little children; but his brother, the Duke of Mayenne, took the lead, and though he was not a elever man, the party was so strong that it took no great ability to make it terrible to the king. The duke's sister, the Duchess of Montpensier, really was like a fury, and went about the streets of Paris stirring up the people, who already hated and despised the king, and now raged against him. They tried him in effigy, deposed him, earried his figure through the streets heaping insults upon it. and made an anagram of his name, Henri de Valois, into Vilain Hevodes. All the world seemed to have been turned against him, and he was brought to such distress that he was obliged to beg Henry of Navarre to come and help him. The two kings met at Plessis-les-Tours, and were most friendly together. They joined their armies and began to besiege Paris; but of course this made the Leaguers more violent against Henry than ever, and a young monk named Clément, fancying that there was no sin, but even virtue, in freeing the Church from a man like Henry, crept out of Paris with a packet of letters, and while the king was reading one, stabbed him in the body with a dagger. Clément was at once slain by the gentlemen of the guard, and the King of Navarre was sent for in time to see his brother-inlaw still alive. Henry embraced him, bade his people own him King of France, and added, "But you will never be able to reign unless you become a Catholic." Then he died, in the year 1589, the last and most contemptible of the miserable house of Valois. The Leaguers rejoiced in his death, and praised the murderer Clément as a saint and martyr, while they set up as king the Cardinal of Bourbon, the old uncle of the King of Navarre, declaring that it was impossible that a heretic should ever reign in France.

# CHAPTER XXXIII.

HENRY IV.

A.D. 1589-1610.

IE new king, Henry IV., was so poor, that he was obliged to dress himself in the velvet coat left by his brother-in-law to receive the gentlemen who came to make submission to him. France was now divided into two parties instead of three, for the Leaguers were of course set against the Huguenots, while the moderate Catholics, who thought that the birthright of the crown called them to be loyal to any sort of king, all came over to Henry. And he was so bright, gracious, and good-natured, that no one could help being fond of him, who

had once heard his frank voice and seen his merry smile.

His old uncle, Cardinal Charles, the Leaguers' king, soon died, and then they talked of Isabel, a daughter of Philip II. of Spain, because her mother had been the eldest sister of the last three kings; but as there was a great hatred of the Spaniards among the French, this plan rather did harm to their cause, and made many more of the Catholies turn to Henry. He was fighting his way to the throne, through more battles and sieges, ups and downs, than it is possible to tell of here, though the adventures he met with are delightful to read of. At the battle of Ivry, in Normandy, he told his followers that if they wanted a guide in the thick of the fray they had only to follow his white feather; and the saying became a by-word after his great victory. The Spaniards came to help the League, and the war lasted year after year, while Henry still was kept out of Paris. At last he made up his mind that he would return to the Roman Catholic Church. He used to say in after times that one of the true things that nobody would believe was, that he had changed out of an honest belief that the Calvinists were wrong; and certainly he did gain a kingdom by so doing; but the truth was that he had very little right religion at all, and that he did not like the strict ways of the Calvinists. If the Catholic clergy had been in a better state, they would not have received him unless he had left off all the sinful habits he loved; but they were only too glad to gain him over, and accepted him heartily. But still the League was not satisfied, and only in the year 1594, when he had been king five years, did he ride into Paris, with his hair and moustache gray from his cares and toils; and even then the Leaguers went on opposing him, till at last his wisdom, and that of his good old friend, the Duke of Sully, succeeded in overcoming the remains of their dislike, and the Duke de Mayenne consented to make peace with him.



HENRY IV. AT IVRY.

Then only did Henry IV. really begin to reign. He had to put down some of the great nobles, who had grown over-powerful and insolent during the long civil war; but he was one of the most kind-hearted of men, and never punished if he could help it. He felt kindly toward the poor, and wished that the time should come when every Frenchman should have a fat

hen to boil in his pot. And, besides, he tried to do justice between the Catholics and the Calvinists. He had friends on both sides, and was anxious to make them live in peace, without fighting with one another or perseeuting one another-a plan which had been proved to convince nobody, and only to lead to hatred, cruelty, and misery. So he brought about a law which gave the Calvinists leave to have places of worship where there was a sufficient congregation, provided it was not where they would annoy Catholies. And they were not hindered from taking offices at court or in the army, nor from keeping schools in certain places; and to secure all this to them, they were allowed to hold three towns as pledges-La Roehelle, Montauban, and Montpellier. In this last, there was a college for educating their pastors, and at each of the three in turn there were meetings of their clergy to consult on the affairs of the Church. This law was called the Edict of Nantes, because Henry had it registered by the parliament of the old duchy of Brittany, since each old province still kept its own laws and parliament. He obtained this Ediet of Nantes with great difficulty, for almost all the Catholies thought it a very wicked thing to allow any person to remain outside the Church; but every one was worn out with the long and bloody civil war, and was glad to rest; so the Ediet was passed, and France began to recover.

Henry had no children, and wished to be rid of his wife Margaret, that he might marry another, instead of having to leave his crown to his young cousin, the Prince of Condé. So, as there had never been real consent on the Pope's part to the marriage of the cousins, and as the bride had been forced into it against her will by her mother and brother, the Pope was persuaded to pronounce the wedding null and void, and that the two were free to marry again. Still it was not easy to find a princess, for all the Spaniards and Austrians and their allies were his greatest enemies, and he could not now marry a Protestant; so he ended by choosing one of the Medici family, Mary, who proved to be a dull, selfish woman, not so clever as Catherine, but not much of a companion to him.

However, she gave him two sons and three daughters, and there never was a fonder father. Once, when the Austrian ambassador came to see him, he was found on all-fours, with his little son riding on his back. "Are you a father, sir?" he said to the new-comer. "Yes, sire." "Then we will finish our game," returned the king.

There were many of the remnants of the Leaguers who hated the king for having once been a Huguenot, and for the Edict of Nantes; and though the love of the whole country was more and more with him, he still was not willing to gather a great crowd together in Paris, lest harm might follow. So, as he had been crowned long before he was married, the coronation of Mary de Medicis was put off, year after year, till it should seem safer; but

she was vexed at the delay, and prevailed at last. Henry was not with her, and only looked on from a private box at the pageant, and while so doing, he gravely said to the friend who was with him, that he had been thinking how all this erowd would feel if the last trumpet were at once to sound.

His own call was nearer than he thought. The next day, just as he had seated himself in his earriage, a man named Francis Ravaillae sprang on the wheel, held a paper to him to read, and the next moment stabbed him to the heart with a knife, so that he died in an instant, one of the greatest losses his country had ever known. It was on the 14th of May, 1610. He was known to the French as "le Grand Monarque," the Great Monarch; and he really was a great man, and would have been a far greater if he had been really good.



### CHAPTER XXXIV.

LOUIS XIII.

A.D. 1610-1643.

HE eldest son of Henry IV., Louis XIII., was but nine years old when his father was killed; and his mother, Mary de Medicis, became regent. She was a weak, foolish woman, and let herself be entirely guided by an Italian lady in her train, named Galigai, who had married a man named Concini. Mary made her son give him the title of Marshal d'Ancre, and it was they who really ruled France. When Leonora was asked how she managed the queen, she answered, "By the power of a strong mind over a weak one." But all the old

French nobles greatly hated d'Anere for his pride and insolence, and Mary

declared that Leonora had bewitched the queen.

Their rule lasted seven years; but when the young king was sixteen years old, a young nobleman named Luynes stirred him up to free himself from them, telling him that, now he was growing up, they would secretly kill him, that his mother might continue regent in the name of his little brother. So Louis desired his guards to arrest d'Ancre next time he came to the palace, and to kill him if he resisted. He did resist, and was cut down and slain, and his wife was tried for bewitching the queen, and put to death. Mary had to leave court, and go into the country; whence, after some years of wrangling with her son, she went to England, after her youngest daughter, Henrietta Maria, had married King Charles I.; and she afterward died in great poverty.

Louis XIII. was a strange person—slow, dull, and cold-hearted, though not ill-disposed. His health was bad, and he hated trouble and thinking



CONCINI AND MARY DE MEDICIS.

more than anything else. What he chiefly cared for was to have some friend about him, who would hunt, talk, and amuse him, while all trouble was saved him. One very clever man was in his court, Armand de Richelieu, Bishop of Luçon, who was the ablest man in court. Albert de Luynes was

the king's first minister after d'Ancre's fall; but when he died of a fever, Richelieu obtained the management of everything. He let the king have young men as his companions and favorites; but if ever one of these showed any spirit, and tried to stir the king up to act for himself and overthrow the tyranny he lived under, Richelieu always found it out, and put the bold man to death. The king did nothing to save his friends, and when they were once out of his sight seemed to forget all about them; for in truth he disliked trouble more than anything else, and would have been very sorry to think for himself instead of letting Richelieu think and act for him.

The cardinal, for so the Pope created him, was really one of the most wonderful statesmen who ever lived, and made France a much greater and more mighty power than ever before, and the king much more powerful too. He was a hard, stern man, and did not care for justice, or for any one's suffering, provided he could do that one thing—make the crown of France more powerful. The nobles, who had grown strong and haughty during the long wars, were very sternly, and even cruelly, put down by him. He thought nothing of getting them accused of treason, shutting them up in prison, or having them put to death; and he thus managed to get rid of all the great men who had been almost princes, such as the Count de Montmorency, grandson to the old Constable.

He also made war upon the Huguenots, in spite of the Edict of Nantes, and tried to take La Rochelle from them. There was a long and terrible Charles I. of England sent them help; and his favorite, the Duke of Buckingham, was to have had the command of the fleet that was coming to them, but he was killed at Portsmouth, as you may have read. When at last the people were starved out, after fourteen months, the cardinal made the king himself come down to receive their submission. La Rochelle was a terrible loss to them, and they were far more at the king's mercy than when they had such a strong town. But at least the Roman Catholic Church was in a much better state than it had been when they had broken away from it. Much still needed to be set right; but some of the worst evils had been put a stop to, and there were many very good men among the clergy, especially Francis de Sales, Bishop of Geneva, and Vincent de Paul, a good priest, who gathered together the poor desolate children who had no homes, and were starving in the streets of Paris, and set good ladies to take care of them. He also first established the order of Sisters of Mercy, who are like nuns. only not shut up in convents, but going about to nurse the sick, take care of orphans, and teach poor children. The great ladies at court used to put on plain dresses and go to nurse the sick in the hospitals, even the queen herself. She was a Spanish princess, called Anne of Austria—a good, kind, and gracious lady-but no one cared for her much at court; and for many

years she had no children, but at last, when all hope had been given up, she had first one and then another boy, and there was immense rejoicing.

Wars had been going on with the Spaniards, all through the reign, in Italy and the Low Countries, as well as a terrible fight between the Roman



RICHELIEU AND FATHER JOSEPH.

Catholics and Protestants in Germany, which is called the Thirty Years' War. Cardinal de Richelieu managed matters so well that France always gained the advantage; and some excellent generals were growing up in the army, especially the Viscount de Turenne, brother to the Duke of Bouillon,

and the Duke d'Enghien, eldest son of the Prince of Condé, who gained some wonderful victories in the Low Countries while still a mcre youth.

But Richelieu's own iron rule was coming to an end. He had been in very bad health for years, but he never seemed to care about it, and was as fierce as ever if a friend of the king tried to take away his power. The Baron de Cinq Mars was put to death for conspiring against him when he was almost at the gates of the grave. He declared, when he was receiving his last communion, that he had always meant to work for the honor of God and the good of the State; and he died, in his fifty-eighth year, on the 4th of December, 1642, after advising the king to trust to an Italian priest named Mazarin, as he had trusted to him.

Louis seemed to care very little for the loss of Richelieu. He only said, "There's a great statesman dead;" and when there was a great storm on the day of the funeral, he said, "The cardinal has a bad day for his journey." But he was in a very weakly state himself, and only lived five months after Richelieu, dying at forty-two years old, on the 14th of May, 1643. Never was a son more unlike his father than he had been to Henry IV., seeming to be his exact opposite in every one of his better or worse qualities; and though his reign was a grand one to France, it was no thanks to him, but to the great statesman who ruled both him and the country.



### CHAPTER XXXV.

LOUIS XIV. - YOUTH.

A.D. 1643-1661.

AM Louis XIV.," cried the little five years' old Danphin, as he stood by his dying father's bedside. "Not yet," the old king was still strong enough to say, though he did not live many more hours. Poor child! he did not know what he rejoiced in. His was the longest reign that ever king had (no less than seventy-seven years), and he was sick and weary of it long before it ended.

At first his mother, Queen Anne, was regent, and she trusted entirely to Cardinal Mazarin. He was not a great man, like Richelieu, but he was clever and cunning, and the saying was, "The fox comes after the lion;" for as he was a foreigner, and of low birth, the French found it much harder to submit to him than to Richelieu, who

was of one of the noblest families in France. Only four days after the accession of the little king, the Duke d'Enghien won the great battle of Rocroy, in the Low Countries, which quite destroyed the fine old Spanish foot soldiers; and after two more victories, peace was made between France and Spain. But this did not make things easier for Mazarin, for all the nobles who had been away with the army came home, with nothing to do, and especially the Duke d'Enghien, who soon, on his father's death, became Prince of Condé, and who was proud and fiery, and hated the upstart Mazarin.

All this hatred broke out in a great quarrel between the queen and the parliament of Paris. You must remember that the parliament of Paris was a very different thing from the parliament of England. It did not represent the whole kingdom, for each of the great old provinces had a separate parliament of its own; and it was only made up of the lawyers of Paris and the great nobles who belonged to the old duchy of France, with the bishops and princes of the blood-royal. It used to judge peers of France for State offences, and in matters of property; but it could not make laws or grant All it could do was to register the laws and the taxes when the king had made them; and the king's acts were not valid till this had been done. Now, when Mazarin, in the king's name, laid an unjust tax on all the food that was brought into Paris, the parliament refused to register the act, and there was a great struggle, which was known by the strange name of the Fronde. Fronde is the French name of a sling; and in the earlier part of the quarrel the speakers used to stand up and throw sharp words at one another, just like the little boys slinging stones at one another. But they soon came to much worse weapons. You could not understand or remember all the strange things that then took place; it is enough for the present to remember that the Fronde was the effort of the parliament to stand up against the royal power, and that there were two sieges of Paris in the course of it. The Prince of Condé at first would not turn against the king, and helped to make a short peace; but then he insisted on the queen sending Mazarin away, and when he was gone, the queen found Condé such a stern, insolent master, that she contrived to get Mazarin back, and he threw Condé into prison. Conde's wife joined with the other Frondeurs to try to gain his freedom again, and he was set free, but only to make another war, in which, however, he was overcome, and forced to go into banishment, when, to his shame be it spoken, he joined the Spaniards, and helped them to make war against his own country.

It was no small punishment for him that Marshal Turenne was commanding the French, and Condé was under a very lazy, indolent Spanish general, so that he was sure that there must be a defeat. He said to the Duke of York, who was serving with him, "Now you will see how a battle ought not to be fought."

For this was the time when all King Charles's family were living scattered about in banishment. Queen Henrietta was at Paris with her youngest daughter; but when Oliver Cromwell made a treaty with the French, he had required that Charles II. and his brother, the Duke of York, should not be allowed to live in France.

Cardinal Mazarin followed up all the plans of Richelieu, and France went on prospering and gaining victories, until the Spaniards at last, in the year 1659, made what was called the Peace of the Pyrenees, giving up several towns in the Low Countries. The young King Louis was to forgive the Prince of Condé, and to marry Maria Teresa, the daughter of the King of Spain.

Only two years later died Cardinal Mazarin, leaving an immense fortune. He had, like Richelieu, eared for the greatness of the kingdom of France and for the power of the crown more than for the character of the king who held all this power, and so he had let the young king grow up very ignorant, for fear of being interfered with. Anne of Austria, who was a good woman, tried hard to make her boys religious, and they always respected religion; but their flatterers did not teach them how it should tame their pride or make them care for the good of the people, and Louis XIV. grew up thinking that the nation was made for his glory, and not himself for the good of his people. Yet he was a wonderfully able man. Mazarin said, "There is stuff in him to make four kings, and an honest man into the bargain." When the cardinal died, and the ministers asked to whom they should come, he answered, "To myself;" and for all the half-century after that his reign lasted, he was always ready for them. He tried afterward to study and make up for the neglect of his youth, but he never was the same man he might have been with good training. One thing he had from his mother, namely, the grandest and most stately courtesy and the most kingly manners that perhaps were ever seen. He never received a curtsey from any woman without a bow, and his gracious dignity seems fairly to have dazzled the eyes of the very best and wisest men, so that they looked up to him like a sort of divinity, and could not even see his faults. His court was exceedingly splendid, and very stiff. Every one had his place there, and never came out of it; and who must stand or who might sit, who might be on stools and who must kneel, in the royal presence, was thought a matter of the greatest importance. Richelieu and Mazarin had robbed the nobles of all useful work, so all they cared for was war and waiting at court, and getting money from their poor peasants to support the expense.



# CHAPTER XXXVI.

LOUIS XIV .- MIDDLE AGE.

A.D. 1661-1688.

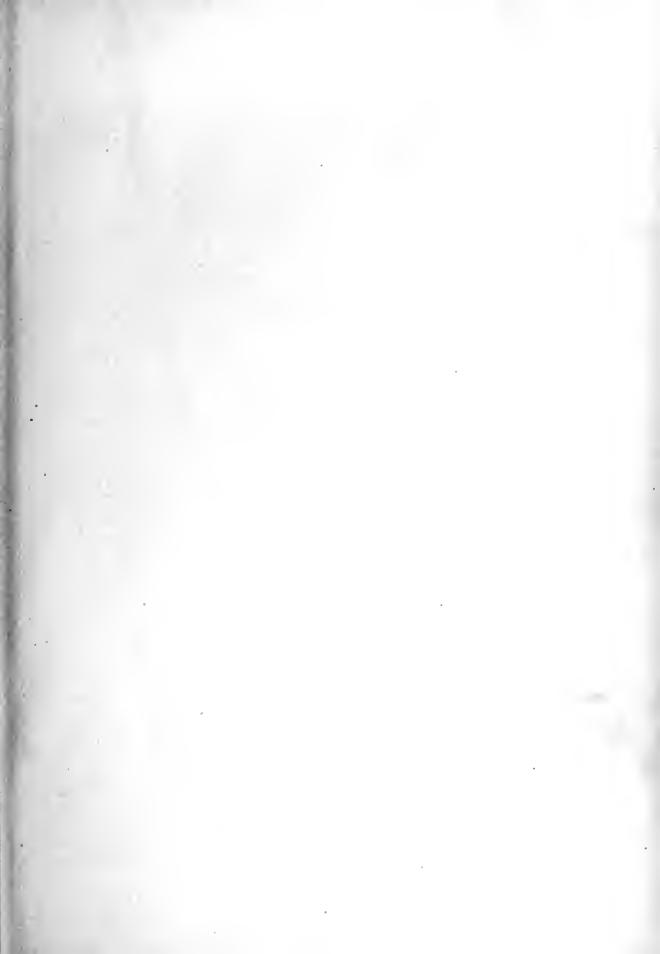
OUIS XIV. loved to be ealled the Great, but he did not understand that real greatness is making a kingdom happier instead of making it larger, and he only eared for his own glory. He had the two best generals then in Europe, in the Viscount de Turenne and the Prince of Condé, and his nobles were very brave and spirited; so he was always going to war, without thinking whether it were justly or not, and faneying the honor was his, whereas his victories were all owing to his generals; and when he went out to war, he only went to the siege of some city,

where he rode about in a splendid gold-laced coat, with a huge white feather in his cocked hat, quite out of reach of danger. And yet his people were all so proud of him that the very sight of him made his soldiers fight all the better, and poets wrote verses comparing him to Jupiter, and Mars, and

every other warlike hero they could think of.

He had married Maria Teresa, daughter to the King of Spain; and when her father died, he pretended that he ought to inherit all the Low Countries, instead of her little brother Charles. This was very unjust, and would have made France much too powerful; so the Dutch and English joined together to prevent it, and there were some terrible fights. But it was when Charles II. was king, and his youngest sister Henrietta had married Louis's brother, the Duke of Orleans. So Louis sent the duchess to persuade King Charles and his minister, by promises of money and favor, to desert the Dutch; and, to England's great shame, she succeeded. The brave Dutch were left alone against all the power of France. William, Prince of Orange, commanded their armies; and though he was beaten again and again, the little State never gave in; though, to keep out the French, it was needful to open the flood-gates that protect Holland from the sea, and let in so much water that the enemy could not pass.

Then the Emperor of Germany took up the cause of the Dutch, but Louis sent Turenne against his troops, and conquered Alsace. Turenne went on into Germany, and there his army was grievously cruel. Crops were burnt down, houses and villages burnt and plundered, and the inhabitants brought to misery beyond imagination. Turenne could hardly help





OUS XIX

What he was commanded to do, but this war was the common the was a kind and merciful must in general, and to a local factor his soldiers leved him so much, that once when he had a short halt on a bare, bleak hill-side, and it began to a tent for him with their own cloaks. It this we have inguider a tree near the village of Salzhard my a tanner since this body in two, and mortally wounded a tarbheau tweep for me, but for that great man, two trees in the last the his son. Turenne was buried many the last the salary trees.



WHATAM, PRINCE OF CHANGE,

took the command of the army gaining many hard fought buttles; until at last peace was made, leaving Louis in nor assist of Alsace and of the city of Strasburg, both of which preparly belonged to the empire.

But glory, or what he fancied glory, was all Louis cared about; and besides his great general, he had about him many of the ablest men where tived in France both ministers of State and writers. He had I kewise most excellent hishops and c'czz, such as Bossnet, bishop of Meaux. Tho was a wonder ray med preacher, as we'll as a great scholar. Louis made Bossnet tut a to his only sout but the Dauphin was a very dull and silly youth, who was do for nothing but playing at eards and theoring, and very little want has to be in him. He married a Certoan princess, who was duller want has to be in him. He married a Certoan princess, who was duller want has to be not him. He married a Certoan princess, who was duller



what he was commanded to do, but this war was the darkest spot in his life. He was a kind and mereiful man in general, and very just and upright; and his soldiers loved him so much, that once, when he had fallen asleep during a short halt on a bare, bleak hill-side, and it began to snow, they made a tent for him with their own cloaks. In this war he was killed, while standing under a tree near the village of Salzbach, by a cannon-shot, which nearly cut his body in two, and mortally wounded a nobleman close by. "Do not weep for me, but for that great man," were the words of this gentleman to his son. Turenne was buried among the kings at St. Denys', and Condé



WILLIAM, PRINCE OF ORANGE.

took the command of the army, gaining many hard-fought battles; until at last peace was made, leaving Louis in possession of Alsace and of the city of Strasburg, both of which properly belonged to the empire.

But glory, or what he fancied glory, was all Louis cared about; and besides his great generals, he had about him many of the ablest men who ever lived in France, both ministers of State and writers. He had likewise most excellent bishops and clergy, such as Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, who was a wonderfully good preacher, as well as a great scholar. Louis made Bossuet tutor to his only son; but the Dauphin was a very dull and silly youth, who cared for nothing but playing at cards and shooting, and very little could be taught him. He married a German princess, who was duller still, and they had three sons, the Dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Berri.

## CHAPTER XXXVII.

LOUIS XIV.-OLD AGE.

A.D. 1688-1715.

1688, Louis lost the English alliance. Charles II. and James II. having spent their youth in France, and being Roman Catholics—the one at heart, and the other openly—had always looked up to him and been led by him; but when the Revolution took place, and James was driven away to take refuge once more in France, Louis's greatest enemy, William of Orange, became King of England. Louis gave James and his queen a home at his palace of St. Germain's, and did all he could for them, sending an expedition with James to Ireland;

but all in vain—the English only hated James the more for bringing the French upon them, and his troops were beaten at the river Boyne and his ships at Cape La Hogue, so that he was obliged to cease from the attempt.

But another great war soon began. Charles II., King of Spain, died in 1700, leaving no children. His sister and his two aunts had married Emperors of Germany and Kings of France; but as the Spaniards did not choose to have their kingdom joined on to another, it was always the custom for the princesses to renounce all right to the crown for themselves and their children. However, the whole Spanish line had come to an end, and there really was nobody else who had any right at all. Now, Louis XIV. had married the sister, so his son was the nearest heir; but, on the other hand, the Emperor of Germany was descended from the brother of the great Charles V., who had been Emperor and King of Spain both at once. The emperor wanted to make his second son, the Archduke Charles, King of Spain; and Louis put forward his second grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou.

The Spaniards would have preferred Charles, but Louis was ready the first. He made the Dauphin and the Duke of Burgundy give up their right to Philip, saluted him as King of Spain, and sent him off with an army to Madrid, saying, "There are no more Pyrenees;" by which he meant that France and Spain were now to be like only one country. Now this was just what the rest of the world did not wish. France was a great deal too powerful already, and nobody could be glad to see Spain and the Low Countries ruled over by a young man who was sure to do exactly what his



LOUIS XIV.



grandfather bade him; and so England and all the other States of Europe joined to assist the Archduke Charles in winning Spain.

Thus began what was called the War of the Spanish Succession. The Archduke Charles went to Spain, and the English helped him there; and a French army invaded Germany, but there they met the English and Austrian armies, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugène of Savoy, and

were terribly defeated at Blenheim.

This Prince Engène's father had always lived in France, and his mother was a niece of Cardinal Mazarin; but he and some other young men had grown tired of the dull court life, and had run away to fight in the Anstrian army against the Turks. Louis had been very angry, and had had their letters seized; and there he found himself laughed at, and called a stage king in peace, and a chess king in war. He was very angry, and never forgave Prince Eugène, who took service under the Emperor of Germany, and was the second-best general then in Europe. For all the great generals of Louis's youth were dead; and though Marshals Villars and Boufflers were able men, they were not equal to Marlborough, and were beaten again and again in the Low Countries. The only victory the French did gain was in Spain, at Almanza, where, strangely enough, the English were commanded by a French Huguenot, and the French by Marlborough's nephew, the Duke of Berwick, who had left home with James II.

But troubles came thick upon Louis XIV. He lost his only son, the Dauphin; and all his great men who had made his reign so splendid were dying round him, and nobody rising up equal to them. His subjects, too, were worn out; all their strongest young men had been carried off to be soldiers, and there were not enough left to till the ground properly. Besides, the money that the king wanted for his wars and buildings was far more than they could pay, and it was the tradesmen, farmers, and lawyers who had to pay it all; for in France no priest and no noble ever paid taxes. Moreover, all the family of a noble was considered as noble for ever, instead of, as it is in England, only the head of the house himself; and so all the younger sons and their children for ever paid no taxes, and were allowed to to be of no profession, but only to be clergy or soldiers. They were always the officers, so that a soldier, however clever and brave, never could rise unless he was of good birth. People were getting very discontented, and especially when, instead of getting glory, they were always beaten, at Ramillies and Oudenarde and Malplaquet; and Louis's buildings and gardens at Versailles and Trianon heavily oppressed them.

Old as Louis was, there was untamable pride and resolution in him, and his steadiness was admired even by his enemies, when he continued daunt-lessly to resist, even when there seemed little to hinder Marlborough and Eugène from marching upon Paris. However, this humiliation was spared

the proud old king by the change in Queen Anne's councils, which deprived Marlborough of power, and led to a peace at last with France. The Archduke Charles became emperor after the death of his father and brother; and thus Philip of Anjou was allowed to remain King of Spain.

Everything, however, was sad and mournful at the French court. The king kept up all his old state, but his strength and spirit were gone; and Madame de Maintenon used to say no one could guess what a dreadful thing it was to have to amuse an unamusable king. The brightest person at



FÉNÉLON.

court was the young Dauphiness, Adelaide of Savoy, wife to the Duke of Burgundy, who was now Dauphin. She used to play merrily with the king, and coax him into cheerfulness as no one else could; but she was giddy and gay, and sometimes grieved her husband. He was a grave, thoughtful man, very pious and religious, always trying to follow the counsels of his dear friend and master, Fénélon, and thinking anxiously of the load that the kingdom would be in the state in which his grandfather would leave it.

But he never had to bear that load. A dreadful form of malignant

measles came into the court, and the Dauphiness caught it and died, then the eldest of her two little sons, and lastly, the good Dauphin himself. All were ill so very few days that people talked about poison; and no one was left of the whole family except the old king and one little great-grandson, the Dauphin's second son, a baby not able to walk alone, and the king's nephew, Philip, Duke of Orleans, the son of his brother, who was known to be a very bad and selfish man.

It was a sad prospect for France when, a year later, Louis XIV. died, after a reign of seventy years, when he had been the greatest monarch in Europe, and might have been one of the grandest of men, if he had only known what true greatness is.



### CHAPTER XXXVIII.

LOUIS XV.

A.D. 1715-1774.

THE poor little boy who had become King of France was so young that he could scarcely walk alone, and so forlorn that he had no kinsman near enough to take his hand when he was shown to the people, but had to be held in purple ribbon leading-strings.

It was a sad reign altogether. The regent was the Duke of Orleans, a thoroughly dissipated man, not unlike Charles II. of England, but worse in conduct, though quite as goodnatured; and the whole court became nothing but a sink of

iniquity under him. He died just as the young king was growing up; but the boy was slow, dull, and painfully shy—not at all fit to take the command of everything, like Louis XIV. He had had a good tutor, Cardinal Fleury, who was ruler for a little while, but soon died; and then there was nothing to hinder the king from being drawn into all sorts of evil by the wicked men who had grown up in the time of the regent, Duke of Orleans.

The queen was a Polish princess, named Maria Leckzinska. She was a gentle, kindly person, though not at all clever, and at first the king was very fond of her; but these wretches thought it dull to have a respectable court, and wanted to manage the king their own way, so they taught him to be a glutton and a drunkard, and to think it witty to talk the low, coarse language of the vulgar crowd in Paris. The queen was shocked, and when she

showed her offence, Louis was angry, and never cared for her again, but only showed himself with her in public, and spent all his spare time in the most

disgraceful amusements.

Yet the people, who did not know all as yet, had such a love and loyalty for the very name of king, that they were ready to break their hearts when he had a bad fever, and almost went mad with joy when he recovered. They then called him Louis the Well-beloved, a name that sounded very sad in after times.



BATTLE OF FONTENOY.

There was a great war going on all this time between Maria Theresa, the Queen of Hungary and Archduchess of Austria, and Frederick II., King of Prussia. The English held with the Austrians, and the French with the Prussians; and at the battle of Dettingen, George II. had been defeated by Marshal de Noailles. Again, at Fontenoy, the English were defeated; and though Louis XV. was with the army, the victory was owing to his general, Marshal Saxe. The wars, however, pressed very heavily on the French, and

the poor were even more wretched than in the former reign. The Duke of Orleans, a good man, son to the wicked regent, one day brought a horrible bit of black bread to the council, to show the king what his subjects lived upon; but nothing would make Louis care for anybody but himself.

However, there was peace made for a little while, but what was called the Seven Years' War soon broke out again; but this time the English were with the Prussians and the French with the Austrians, and there was a great

battle at Minden, which the French lost, and soon after there was a more lasting peace

in Europe.

But nothing could do the unfortunate kingdom of France any good while it had such a king as Louis XV., who had no feeling for any one but himself, and had such low tastes that he liked nothing but the basest, coarsest pleasures, and hated all that interfered with them. He had only one son, the Dauphin, who had grown up, in the midst of that wicked court, pure, upright, and pious, and lived a peaceful, quiet life with his good wife, a Polish princess; but there was nobody the king disliked so much, because their goodness was a continual reproof, and he could not help thinking that the people would rather have had the Dauphin for their king than himself. So the Dauphin was never al-



VOLTAIRE.

lowed to take any part in business, and all he could do was to try to bring up his children well, and to help his four sisters, whom the king had scarcely educated at all, and who lived a very dull life in the palace, so that the happiest was Madame Louise, who became a nun.

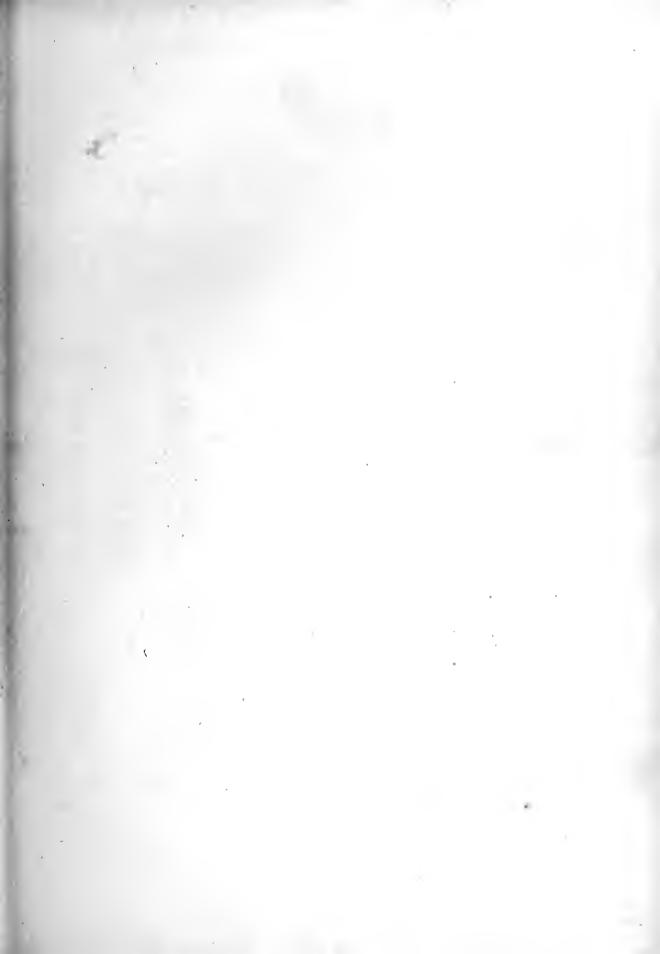
The good Dauphin died of a decline, when only thirty-six years old, leaving five children, the eldest eleven years old; and his wife followed him fifteen months later, begging her sisters-in-law to watch over her children.

The king only grew worse than ever, and used to amuse himself by going in disguise to low dances among the Paris mob. Yet all the time he went every morning to church; and among all the clergy in the country, only one good Bishop once dared to tell him what a sinner he was. There were still a great many good clergy, but it was only the bad ones who would not speak out about the wickedness at court who met with any favor. Half the people in the country were getting mad with misery; and when they saw that the priests did nothing to rebuke all the crimes they suffered from, it seemed to them that even the Christian religion itself must be a mistake. There were a great many clever men at that time, of whom the most noted were Voltaire and Rousseau, who wrote books that every one was reading, which made attacks on all Christianity, and pretended that the old heathen philosophers were much better and wiser than Christians; and it was a strange thing that though Hugnenots were still persecuted, and their religious books burnt, nobody meddled with these infidels, who had no religion at all.

Every one saw that a great storm was coming, and that there must be a terrible downfall of the royal power that Richelieu, Mazarin, and Louis XIV. had built up, and which Louis XV. used so shamefully; but when he was told that there was danger, he only said the kingdom would last his time. His grandson, the young Dauphin, had grown up, and was married to the beautiful, bright young daughter of Maria Theresa—Marie Antoinette. The evening she arrived at Paris, there were grand illuminations and fireworks, and in the midst some terror seized the people that there was a fire, and they all rushed crowding together in the gates of the Champs Elysées, so that a number of them were trampled to death; and this, though the poor young bride had nothing to do with it, made people feel that it hadbeen a bad beginning.

Louis XV. died at the age of sixty-four, in the year 1774, after a disgraceful reign of sixty years, in which he had constantly fallen deeper and deeper into the mire of sin and disgrace.







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### CHAPTER XXXIX.

LOUIS XVI.

A.D. 1774-1793.

HE young king, Louis XVI., and his queen, Marie Antoinette, threw themselves on their knees when they heard that their grandfather was dead, crying out, "O God! help us; we are too young to reign."

It was as if they knew what dreadful times were coming, brought on by the selfishness and wickedness of those who had gone before them. Nobody could be more good or anxious to set things right than Louis XVI.; but the evils that had been working up for hundreds of years could not be set

to rights by one word, and it was hard to know how to begin. And though the king wished well to all, he was not a elever man, and could not see how to act. Besides, he was very shy and awkward; he hated speaking to strangers, and was so confused that people went away offended; and, besides, they were so much used to bad kings, that they could not believe that he was a good and innocent man.

The queen gave offence in other ways. She was a young, merry girl, who had been brought up in a court where the habits were much more simple and less stately than those in France; and she was always laughing at the formal court ways, and trying to get free from them. When the ladies came to pay their respects, some of her own attendants grew tired of standing round her, and sat down on the floor, hidden by the hoops of the others. She saw and nodded and smiled; and the old ladies who were being presented thought she was making game of their dresses, and were very angry. Her chief lady of the bedchamber, the Duchess of Noailles, tried to keep her in order; but she laughed, and gave the old lady the name of Madame l'Etiquette. When once she was riding a donkey, and it fell with her, she sat on the ground laughing till the duchess came up, and then said, "Pray, madame, when the queen and her donkey both tumble down together, which ought to be the first to get up?"

The great palace that Louis XIV. had adorned at Versailles was so grand that nobody could live in it in comfort. Even he had made a smaller one at Trianon, and this was too stately for the queen's tastes; so she had

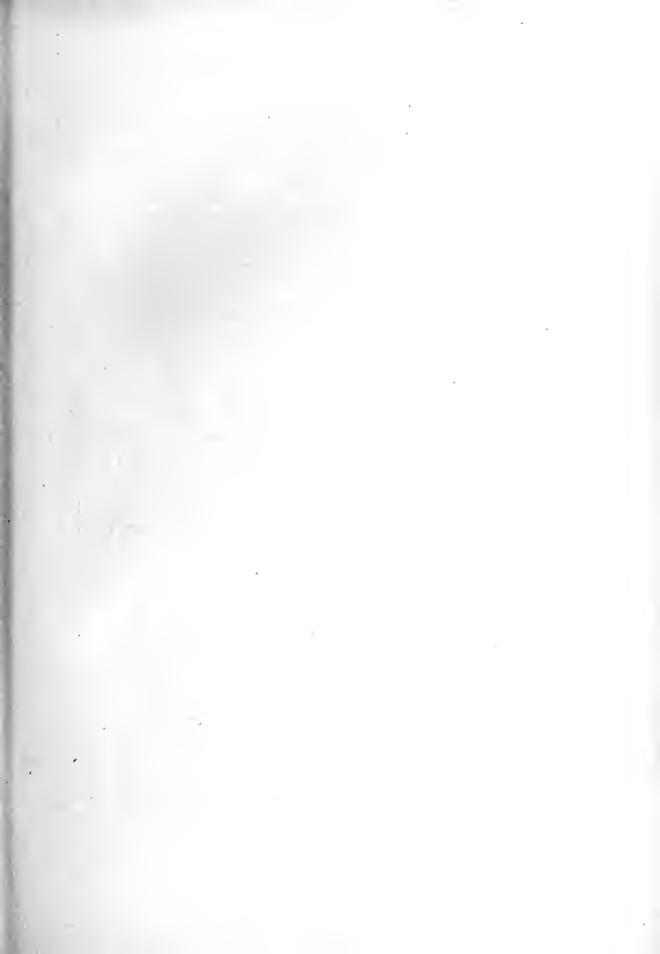
another smaller house, with a farm and dairy, where she and her ladies used to amuse themselves, in white muslin dresses and straw hats; but the people would not believe but that something very wrong went on there; and they hated her greatly because she was an Austrian, and her country had been at war with theirs.

It was just then that the Americans began their war with George III., and a young French nobleman, the Marquis de la Fayette, ran away from home to fight in their army. Afterward, Louis XVI. sent troops to help them; and the sight of the freedom the United States had gained made Lafayette and his friends feel far more bitterly the state of things at home,



REVOLUTIONISTS.

where the poor were ground down to wretchedness by all the old rights of their lords; and till the laws were changed, neither king, nobles, nor clergy, however much they might wish it, could help them. No one felt this more than the king himself. At last, in 1789, he called together his States-General—that is, all his peers, and deputies from the towns and provinces, to see what could be done. It was not like the English parliament, where the peers form one chamber and the commons another; but they were all mixed up together, and there were a great many more deputies than peers, so that they had it all their own way. Besides, they sat in the middle of Paris, and the people of the city could not bear to wait. Perhaps it was no wonder, for they were very poor and miserable, and were fierce with hunger. When-



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They rushed to the great old prison, the Bastile when the termer kings had kept their State prisoners, and tore it down; but they found has liv any one there, for Dodis XVI, had released all his grandfather's presences. Most of the men were enrolled in what was called the National Guard, and all wore cockades, and searfs of red, bine, and white. Lafayette was made gen-

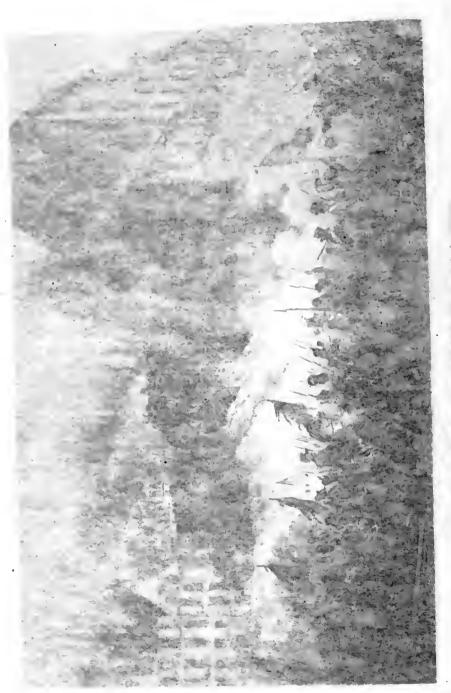
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The States-General culled itself the National Assembly, and control changing the laws. It was at first settled that no law could be passed with. out the king's consent; but the notion that he could stop and plan added to the people's hatred, and they were always foneying he would bring his soldiers to stop the reforms. At last, when there was a scarcity of food in Paris, the mob all rushed out to Versailles, that most soleudid of princes. upon which Louis XIV, had spent so much, and whose from gates looked down the long avenue of trees leading from Paris, a memorial how little pity for their people the two last kings had had It was the less wonder that the mob of Paris believed that Louis A. I. and Marie Ant Trette had the same hard hearts, and were willingly letting them starve. They came and filled the courts of the palace, shouting and yelling for the queen to show herself. She came out on the balcony, with her daughter of twelve years old and her son of six. "No children!" they cried; and she sent them back, and stood, fully believing that they would shoot her, and hoping that her death might content them. But no hand was mised, and night came on. In the night they were seized with another 6t of fury, and broke into the queen's room, from which she had but just escaped, while a brave lady and two of her guards were by sing the outer door.

The next day the whole family were taken back into Paris, while the fishwomen shouted before them. "Here come the baker, his wife, and the

little baker's boy!"

The National Assembly went on to take away all the rights of the nobles, and the property of the Church, and to decree that the clergy must swear to obey them instead of the Church, while these who refused were turned out of their parishes. The National Guard watched the Tuiler's and made the life of the royal family so miserable that they tried to escape in disguise; but fearing that they would come back with armies to put down the Revolution the National Guard seized and stopped them, and they were more closely watched than ever. On the 20th of June, 1792, the mob rushed into the palace, threatened all the family, and spent three Lon's reging and insulting them; and on the 10th of August another attack was made. The queen longed to let the Swiss guards and the loyal gentle-



ever they saw any one whom they fancied was against the changes, they used to fly at him, crying out, "To the lamp!" and hang him up to the

lamps, which were fastened by iron rods over the streets.

They rushed to the great old prison, the Bastile, where the former kings had kept their State prisoners, and tore it down; but they found hardly any one there, for Louis XVI. had released all his grandfather's prisoners. Most of the men were enrolled in what was called the National Guard, and all wore cockades, and scarfs of red, blue, and white. Lafayette was made general of this guard.

The States-General called itself the National Assembly, and went on changing the laws. It was at first settled that no law could be passed without the king's consent; but the notion that he could stop any plan added to the people's hatred, and they were always fancying he would bring his soldiers to stop the reforms. At last, when there was a scarcity of food in Paris, the mob all rushed out to Versailles, that most splendid of palaces, upon which Louis XIV. had spent so much, and whose iron gates looked down the long avenue of trees leading from Paris, a memorial how little pity for their people the two last kings had had. It was the less wonder that the mob of Paris believed that Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette had the same hard hearts, and were willingly letting them starve. They came and filled the courts of the palace, shouting and yelling for the queen to show herself. She came out on the balcony, with her daughter of twelve years old and her son of six. "No children!" they cried; and she sent them back, and stood, fully believing that they would shoot her, and hoping that her death might content them. But no hand was raised, and night In the night they were seized with another fit of fury, and broke into the queen's room, from which she had but just escaped, while a brave lady and two of her guards were barring the outer door.

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men fight for her husband; but Louis could not bear to have a drop of blood shed in his defence, and hoped to save life by going to the National Assembly with his wife, children, and sister; but no sooner were they gone, than every one of the gallant men who would have defended him was savagely massacred, and their heads were carried about the streets of Paris on pikes. It was fear that made the Parisians so ferocious, for the German princes and the French nobles had collected an army to deliver the king, and, as the mob thought, to destroy them; and in the bitter hatred that had now risen against all kings, the Assembly voted that Louis XVI. was no longer King of France, but that the nation was free. So his reign ended on the 10th of August, 1792.

### CHAPTER XL.

THE GREAT FRENCH REVOLUTION.

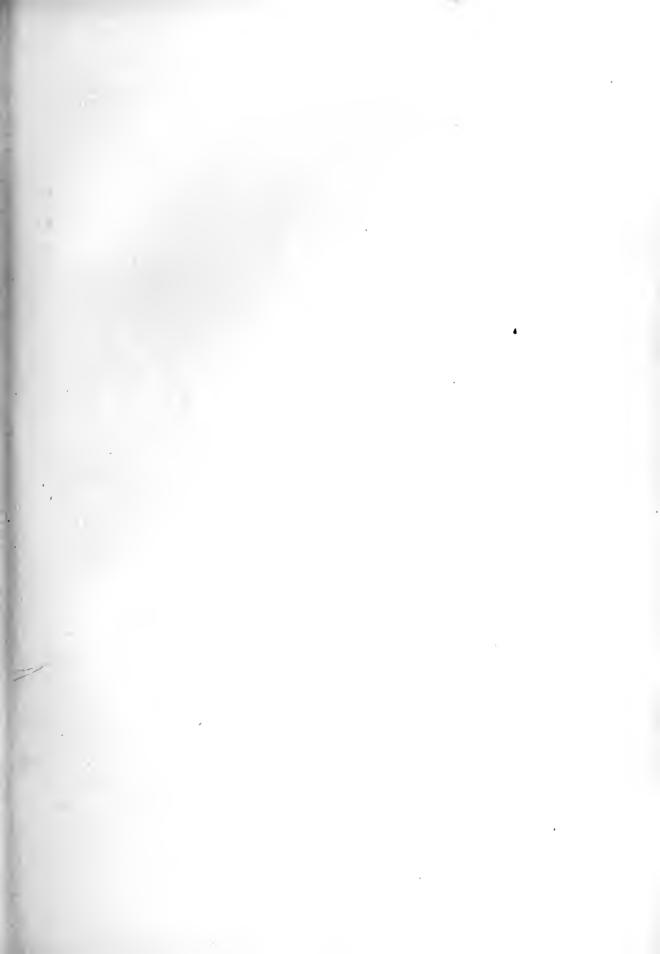
A.D. 1792-1796.

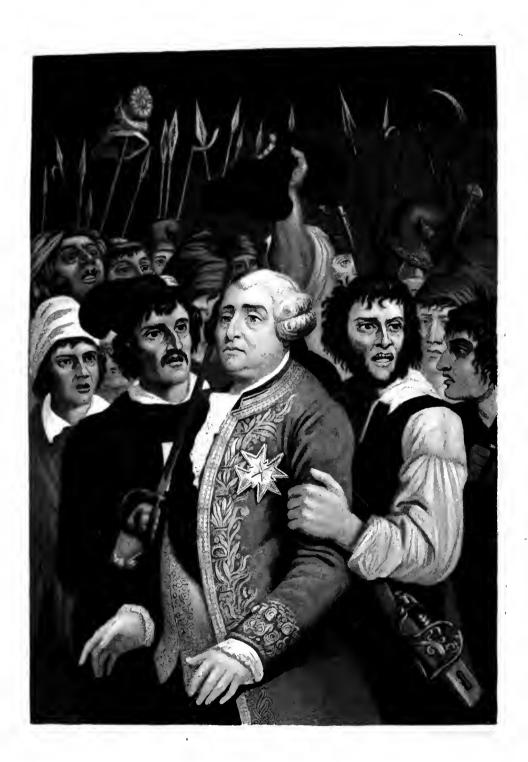
HE Government, after the king was deposed, was placed in the hands of the National Assembly—or Convention, as it now called itself—of deputies chosen by the people.

There is nothing but what is sad and terrible to be told of France for the next four or five years, and the whole account of what happened would be too difficult to understand, and

some part is too dreadful to dwell upon.

The short account of it is that, for years and years before, the kings, the nobles, and some of the clergy too, had cared for little but their own pride and pleasure, and had done nothing to help on their people—teach, train, or lead them. So now these people were wild with despair; and when the hold on them was a little loosened, they threw it off, and turned in furious rage upon their masters. Hatred grew, and all those who had once been respected were looked on as a brood of wolves, who must be done away with, even the young and innocent. The king, queen, his children, and sister (Madame Elizabeth), were shut up in a castle called the Temple, because it had once belonged to the Knights Templars, and there they were very roughly and unkindly treated. A National Guard continually watched them, and these men were often shockingly rude and insulting to them, though they were as patient as possible. Great numbers of the nobles and clergy were shut up in the other prisons; and when news came that an army of Germans and emigrant nobles was marching to rescue





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the king, a set of ruffians were sent to murder them all, cutting them down like sheep for the slaughter, men and women all alike. The family in the Temple were spared for the time, but the emigrant army was beaten at



MARAT.

Jemappes; and the brave nobles and peasants who had risen in the district of La Vendée, in hopes of saving them, could not make head against the regular French army, all of which had joined in the Revolution, being angered because no one not of noble birth could be an officer. All his friends

did for the king only served to make his enemies hate him trebly; and three men had obtained the leadership who seem to have had a regular thirst for blood, and to have thought that the only way to make a fresh beginning was to kill every one who had inherited any of the rights that had been so oppressive. Their names were Marat, Danton, and Robespierre; and they had a power over the minds of the Convention and the mob which no one dared resist, so that this time was called the Reign of Terror. A doctor named Guillotin had invented a machine for cutting off heads quickly and painlessly, which was called by his name; and this horrible instrument was set up in Paris to do this work of cutting off the old race. The king-whom they called Louis Capet, after Hugh, the first king of his line-was tried before the Assembly, and sentenced to die. He forgave his murderers, and charged the Irish clergyman, named Edgeworth, who was allowed to attend him in his last moments, to take care that, if his family were ever restored, there should be no attempt to revenge his death. The last words of the priest to him were, "Son of St. Louis, ascend to the skies."

The queen and her children remained in the Temple, cheered by the piety and kindness of Madame Elizabeth, until the poor little prince—a gentle, but spirited boy of eight—was taken from them, and shut up in the lower rooms, under the charge of a brutal wretch (a shoemaker) named Simon, who was told that the boy was not to be killed or guillotined, but to be "got rid of"—namely, tormented to death by bad air, bad living, blows, and rude usage. Not long after, Marie Antoinette was taken to a dismal chamber in the Conciergerie prison, and there watched day and night by National Guards, until she too was brought to trial, and sentenced to die, eight months after her husband. Gentle Madame Elizabeth was likewise put to death, and only the two children remained, shut up in separate rooms; but the girl was better off than her brother, in that she was alone, with her

little dog, and had no one who made a point of torturing her.

Meanwhile the guillotine was every day in use. Cartloads were carried from the prisons—nobles, priests, ladies, young girls, lawyers, servants, shop-keepers—everybody whom the savage men who were called the Committee of Public Safety chose to condemn. There were guillotines in almost every town; but at Nantes the victims were drowned, and at Lyons they were

placed in a square and shot down with grape shot.

Moreover, all churches were taken from the faithful. A wicked woman was called the Goddess of Reason, and carried in a car to the great cathedral of Notre Dame, where she was enthroned. Sundays were abolished, and every tenth day was kept instead, and Christianity was called folly and superstition; in short, the whole nation was given up to the most horrible frenzy against God and man.

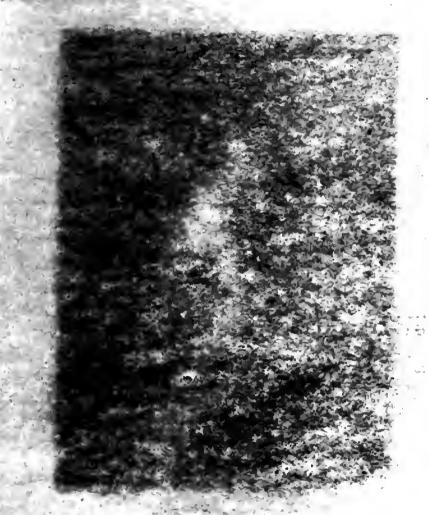
In the midst, Marat was stabbed to the heart by a girl named Charlotte

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Corday, who hoped thus to end these horrors; but the other two continued their work of blood, till Robespierre grew jealous of Danton, and had him guillotined; but at last the more humane of the National Convention plucked up courage to rise against him, and he and his inferior associates were carried to prison. He tried to commit suicide with a pistol, but only shattered his jaw, and in this condition he was guillotined, when the Reign of Terror had lasted about two years.



LOUIS XVII. IN THE TEMPLE.

There was much rejoicing at his fall; the prisons were opened, and people began to breathe freely once more. The National Convention governed more mildly and reasonably; but they had a great deal on their hands, for France had gone to war with all the countries round; and the soldiers were so delighted at the freedom they had obtained, that it seemed as if no one could beat them, so that the invaders were everywhere driven back.

And thus was brought to light the wonderful powers of a young Corsican officer, Napoleon Bonaparte, who had been educated at a military school in France as an engineer. When there was an attempt of the mob to rise and bring back the horrible days of the Reign of Terror, Colonel Bonaparte came with his grape-shot, and showed that there was a government again that must be obeyed, so that some quiet and good order was restored.

Some pity had at last been felt for the poor children in the Temple. It came too late to save the life of the boy, Louis XVII., as he is reckoned, who had for the whole ninth year of his life lain alone in a filthy room, afraid to call any one lest he should be ill-used, and without spirit enough to wash himself, so that he was one mass of sores and dirt; and he only lingered till the 8th of June, 1795, when he died, thinking he heard lovely music, with his mother's voice among the rest. In the end of the same year his sister was released, and went to Russia to join her uncle, who had fled at the beginning of the Revolution, and was now owned by the loyal among the French as Louis XVIII.

In the meantime, the French army had beaten the Germans on the frontier, and had decided on attacking their power in the north of Italy. Bonaparte made a most wonderful passage of the Alps, where there were then scarcely any roads but bridle-paths, and he gained amazing victories. His plan was to get all the strength of his army up into one point, as it were, and with that to fall upon the centre of the enemy; and as the old German generals did not understand this way of fighting, and were not ready, he beat them everywhere, and won all Lombardy, which he persuaded to set up for a republic, under the protection of the French.

All this time, the French were under so many different varieties of government, that it would be difficult to understand them all; but that which lasted longest was called the Directory. People were beginning to feel safe at last; the emigrants were coming home again, and matters were settling down a little more.



#### CHAPTER XLI.

NAPOLEON I.

A.D. 1796-1814,

HEN Bonaparte had come back from Italy, he persuaded the Directory to send him with an army to Egypt to try to gain the East, and drive the English out of India. He landed in Egypt, and near Grand Cairo gained the battle of the Pyramids, and tried to recommend himself to the people of Egypt by showing great admiration for Mahomet and the Koran. But his ships, which he had left on the coast, were attacked by the English fleet, under Sir Horatio Nelson, and every one of them taken or sunk except two, which carried

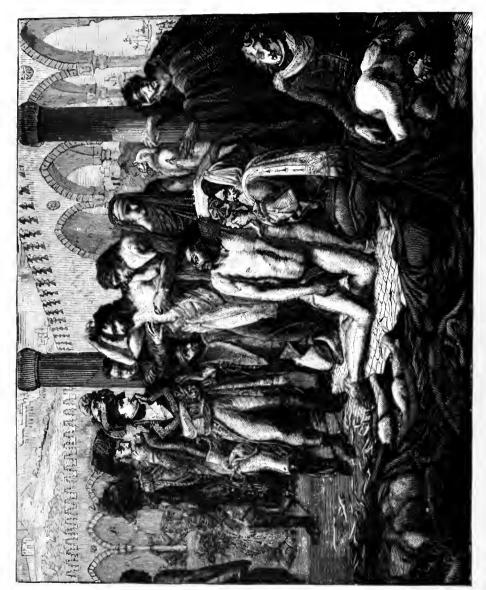
the tidings home. This was the battle of the Nile.

The Sultan of Turkey, to whom Egypt belonged, fitted out an army against the French, and Bonaparte marched to meet it half-way in the Holy Land. There he took Jaffa, cruelly massacred the Turkish garrison, and beat the Sultan's army at Tabor; but Acre was so bravely and well defended, under the management of a brave English sailor, Sir Sidney Smith, that he was obliged to turn back without taking it. He led his troops back, suffering sadly from hunger and sickness, to Egypt, and there defeated another Turkish army in the battle of Aboukir. However, he there heard news from home which showed him that he was needed. The French had, indeed, gone on to stir up a revolution both in Rome and Naples. The Pope was a prisoner in France, and the King of Naples had fled to Sieily; but the Russians had come to the help of the other nations, and the French had nearly been driven out of Lombardy. Besides, the Directory was not able to keep the unruly people in order; and Napoleon felt himself so much wanted, that, finding there were two ships in the port, he embarked in one of them and eame home, leaving his Egyptian army to shift for themselves.

However, he was received at home like a conqueror; and the people of France were so proud of him, that he soon persuaded them to change the Directory for a government of three consuls, of whom he was first. He lived in the Tuileries, and began to keep something very like the old court; and his wife, Josephine, was a beautiful, graceful, kind lady, whom every one loved, and who helped very much in gaining people over to his cause. Indeed, he gave the French rest at home and victories abroad, and that was

NAPOLEON AT JAFFA.

all they desired. He won back all that had been lost in Italy; and the battle of Marengo, on the 14th of June, 1800, when the Austrians were totally routed, was a splendid victory. Austria made peace again, and nobody was at war with France but England, which conquered everywhere by



sea, as France did by land. The last remnant of the French army in Egypt was beaten at Alexandria, and obliged to let the English ships transport them home to France; and after this there was a short peace called the Peace of Amiens, but it did not last long; and as soon as Bonaparte had

decided on war, he pounced without notice on every English traveler in his dominions, and kept them prisoners till the end of the war.



CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME.

He had made up his mind to be Emperor of the French, and before declaring this, he wanted to alarm the old royalists; so he sent a party to seize the Duke d'Enghien (heir of the Princes of Condé), who was living at Baden, and conduct him to Vincennes, where, at midnight, he was tried by a sham court-martial, and at six in the morning brought down to the court-

yard, and shot beside his own grave.

After this, every one was afraid to utter a whisper against Bonaparte becoming emperor, and on the 2d of December, 1804, he was crowned in Notre Dame, with great splendor. The Pope was present, but Bonaparte placed the crown on his own head—a golden wreath of laurel leaves; and he gave his soldiers eagle standards, in memory of the old Roman empire. He drew up an excellent code of laws, which have been used ever since in France, and are known by his name; and his wonderful talent did much to bring the shattered nation into order. Still, England would not acknowledge his unlawful power, and his hatred to her was very great. He had an army ready to invade England, but the English fleet never allowed him to cross the Channel; and his fleet was entirely destroyed by Lord Nelson, at the

great battle of Trafalgar, on the 21st of October, 1805.

But Napoleon was winning another splendid victory at Ulm over the Austrians; and not long after, he beat the Prussians as entirely at Jena, and had all Germany at his feet. He was exceedingly harsh and savage to the Prussians, and was insolent in his manners to the good and gentle Queen Louisa, when she came with her husband to try to make better terms for her country; thus sowing seeds of bitter resentment which were to bear fruit long after. The Russians advanced to the aid of Germany, but the battles of Eylan and Friedland made them also anxious for peace. There never, indeed, was a much abler man than Napoleon; but he had no honor, honesty, or generosity, and had very little heart amid all his seeming greatness. He made his family kings of conquered countries. His brother Louis was King of Holland; Jerome, of Westphalia; and the eldest brother, Joseph, King of Naples; but in 1808 he contrived to cheat the King of Spain of his crown, and keep him and his son prisoners in France, while Joseph was sent to reign in Spain, and General Murat, the husband of his sister Caroline, was made King of Naples. The Portuguese royal family were obliged to flee away to Brazil; but the Spaniards and Portuguese would not submit to the French yoke, and called the English to help them. So year after year the Duke of Wellington was beating Napoleon's generals, and wearing away his strength; but he still went on with his German wars, and in 1809, after two terrible battles at Aspern and Wagram, entered Vienna itself. Again there was a peace; and Napoleon, who was grieved to have no child to leave his empire to, had the wickedness and cruelty to decide on setting aside his good, loving Josephine, and making the Emperor Francis of Austria give





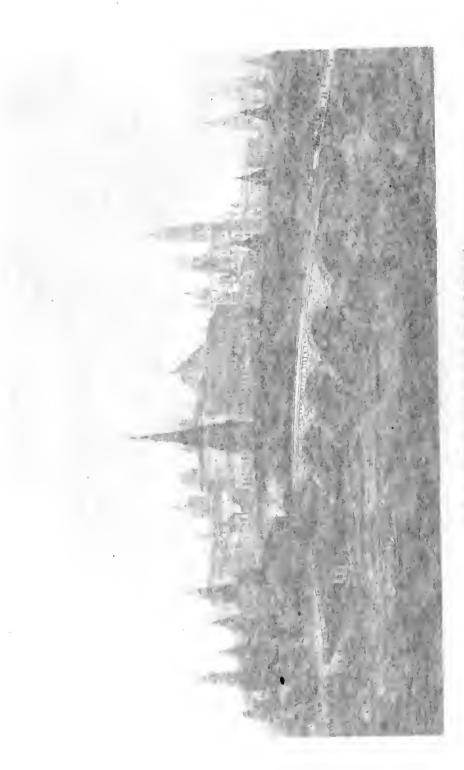
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him his young daughter, Marie Louise. In 1810, the deed was done; and it was said that from that time all his good fortune left him, though he had one little son born to him, whom he called King of Rome.

He set out with what he named the Grand Army, to conquer Russia; and after winning the battle of the Borodino, he entered Moscow; but no sooner was he there than the whole town was on fire, and it burnt on, so that it was not possible to stay there. Winter was just coming on, the Russian army was watching everywhere, and he could only retreat; and the



INCIDENT OF THE RETREAT OF THE GRAND ARMY.

unhappy Grand Army, struggling in the snow, with nothing to eat, and beset by the enemy everywhere, suffered the most frightful misery. Napoleon left it in the midst, and hurried home; but no sooner had this blow been given him, than all the Germans—the Prussians especially, to whom he had been so harsh—rose up and banded together against him. France was worn out with the long wars; and though Napoleon still showed wonderful skill, especially at the battle of Leipzic, he was driven back, inch by inch, as it were, across Germany, and into France, by the Emperors of Austria and Russia and King of Prussia; for though each battle of his was a victory, force of numbers was too much for him.

and they wanted him to acknowledge that they had forced it from royalty by the Revolution. But his brother Charles, Count of Artois, was much more strongly and openly devoted to the old ways that came before the Revolution, and, as Louis had no children, his accession was dreaded. His eldest son, the Duke of Angoulême, had no children; and his second son, the Duke of Berri, who was married to a Neapolitan princess, was the most amiable and hopeful person in the family; but on the 12th of February, 1820, he was stabbed by a wretch called Louvet, as he was leaving the opera, and died in a few hours. His infant son, Henry, Duke of Bordeaux, was the only hope of the elder branch of the Bourbons.

France was worn out and weary of war, so that little happened in this reign, except that the Duke of Angoulême made an expedition to assist the King of Spain in putting down an insurrection. The French nobility had returned to all their titles; but many of them had lost all their property in the Revolution, and hung about the court much needing offices and employments; while all the generation who had grown up among the triumphs of Napoleon looked with contempt and dislike at the endeavor to revive old

habits and ways of thinking.

Louis XVIII. was in failing health, but he kept up much of the old state of the French court, and was most careful never to keep any one waiting, for he used to say, "Punctuality is the politeness of kings." Even when very ill, he would never give up any of the court ceremonies; and when urged to spare himself, said, "A king of France ought to die standing;" but for some years he was unable to walk, being dreadfully tormented by the gout, and he was obliged to let his brother manage his affairs. But he was shrewd enough to dread the Count of Artois' desire to return to the old times of the overgrown royal power; and when he found himself dying, he put his hand on the head of his little four years' old great-nephew, Henry, and said to his brother, "Let Charles X. take care of the crown for this child." He died in September, 1824.



### CHAPTER XLIII.

CHARLES X.

A.D. 1824-1830.

IEN Charles X. had been the young Count of Artois, before the Revolution, he had been gay, lively, and thoughtless—a playfellow of Marie Antoinette in those bright, giddy days when she had caused so much ill-will. After all his exile and wanderings, and in his old age, he had become very religious; but not in a wise way, for he was guided entirely by the Pope and a few clergy, who wanted to bring things back to what they were before the Revolution. It was just the same with the State. His ministers were try-

ing to get back the old power of the crown, and this made every one discontented and jealous, though France had a share in two victories in his time.

The first was made on behalf of the Greeks, who had long been trying, to break away from the rule of the Turks; and at last the Prussian, English, and French fleets joined and defeated the Turks and Egyptians at the battle of Navarino; after which, Greece was able to become a kingdom, under Christian rule.

The other was to clear the Mediterranean Sea of the Moorish robbers who had infested it for centuries past. Ships came from the African ports, especially Algiers, and fell upon any merchant vessel they could seize, taking the goods and carrying the crew and passengers off into slavery. Even the coasts of France, Spain, and Italy were not safe; and people were continually carried off, and set to work for the Moors, until they were ransomed by their friends in Europe. But in 1830 the English and French fleets united to attack this nest of pirates, and gained a grand victory, which put an end to all further sea robberies in the Mediterranean.

But no one was pleased by the victory, for the doings of the king and his ministers enraged the public, and the newspapers found great fault with them, and accused them of all sorts of impossible things. On this, on the 26th of July, 1830, the king put out an edict putting an end to the liberty of the press—that is, forbidding anything to appear in any newspaper without being approved by the government. Some other edicts were also made, which offended the people so much that there was a frightful disturbance at

would fall upon the farm in the night, and burn, destroy, and plunder. Guards of soldiers had to be kept in the forts all round the border; and there was much terrible fighting, for the Arabs were as brave as the French themselves, and had a most gallant chief, named Abd-el-Kader.



THE STORMING OF ALGIERS.

however, after years of fighting, he was forced to surrender himself a prisoner, and was taken to France; but this was not till quite at the end of the reign of Louis Philippe, though related here all at once.

The French also tried to make settlements in the Pacific islands, especially

New Caledonia and the island of Tahiti. They were not at all welcome in this last, for the native queen, Pomarè, had been taught to be a Christian by the English, and did not wish for French protection or Roman Catholic teaching. However, the French were the strongest, and have taken the management there, though the island still professes to be under its own government.

Louis Philippe did his utmost to keep the Parisians in good humor, knowing that he could only reign by their favor; and as the miseries of the old wars were forgotten, and the French only thought of the victories of the times of Napoleon, praising him as the greatest of heroes, the king gratified them by requesting the English to allow him to bring home the corpse of the Emperor from St. Helena, and bury it in the Church of the Invalides, a great asylum for old soldiers at Paris. It was fetched in a man-of-war by the king's sailor son, the Prince de Joinville, and brought to Paris in a triumphal car, which was followed through the streets by Louis Philippe and his sons. A chapel was built, and ornamented with splendid marbles, for the burials of the Bonaparte family. Napoleon's little son was dead, but his brother Louis had left a son, who was living in exile in England or Germany.

Do what he would, Louis Philippe could not prevent a great deal of discontent among the Bonapartists on the one hand, and the Republicans on the other. The richer the shopkeepers and merchants grew, and the more show they made, the more bitter was the hatred of the workmen, who said that everybody ought to be equal not only in rank, but in property; and these men used red alone, instead of the tricolor, for their badge. A horrible conspiracy was made by some wretches, of whom the chief was named Fieschi, for destroying the king, as he rode out, by what was called the Infernal Machine, which was like a whole battery of guns fired off in a moment. The king was not hurt, but fourteen people were killed, of whom one was an old marshal of Napoleon's. The men were traced and seized, and Fieschi was put to death.

The queen, Marie Amélie of Naples, was one of the best women who ever lived, and did all she could to promote goodness and piety. So did the king's prime minister, M. Guizot, who was one of a stanch old Huguenot family; but the Republican dislike to having religion taught in schools hindered the growth of good; and there were a great number of unbelievers, though there were good and holy men struggling with the evil. There were always many parties. There were the Legitimists, who viewed first Charles X., and then his grandson, Henry V., the Count of Chambord, as the only true king, and would take no office under Louis Philippe; and there were the Bonapartists and the Red Republicans, as well as the Moderate ones, who held by the king.

The king had five sons, of whom the eldest, the Duke of Orleans, was much loved and looked up to. He married the Princess Helen of Mecklenburg Schwerin, and they had had two little sons, before he was unhappily killed by leaping out of his open carriage while the horses were running away.

It is a curious thing that the power of a French sovereign always seems to melt away as soon as he shows any designs upon Spain. The king, Ferdinand VII., whom Napoleon kept so long in prison, had left two little daughters; and as they grew up, Louis Philippe interfered about their marriages in a way that caused much displeasure. He could only gain the younger one for his son, the Duke of Montpensier; but he was thought to be grasping at the crown for him, and this made every one jealous. A little later, a nobleman, the Duke de Praslin, horrified all Europe by murdering his wife. He was, of course, condemned to death, but he put an end to his own life in prison, and the Red Republicans fancied that he must have been allowed the means, in order that there might not be a public execution of a nobleman; and this added to the discontent and hatred of poor against rich that had been growing every year.

At last, in February, 1848, after the council and the chambers of deputies had decided against some measures much desired by the people, there was a rising of the mob throughout Paris. The troops were drawn up, and the National Guard; but when the moment came for action, the National Guard would not fire, but made common cause with the people. The army would still have fought, but Louis Philippe would not have blood shed for him. He sent a message that he abdicated in favor of his little grandson, the Count of Paris, with his mother, the Duchess of Orleans, as regent. Then he left the Tuileries privately, and under the name of William Smith, safely reached England.

The Duchess of Orleans bravely came forward to the people with her two boys, but there was no shout in her favor, only angry looks, and her friends saw it was all in vain, and hurried her away as fast as they could. All the family made their way by different means, one by one, to England, where the queen and her people received them as kindly as warm hearts always welcome the unfortunate. Claremont Palace was lent to them as a dwelling-place, and there Louis Philippe and his good queen spent the remainder of their lives. He died in the year 1849, and Amélie a few years later.



#### CHAPTER XLV.

THE REPUBLIC.

A.D. 1848-1852.

FTER Louis Philippe and his family had fled from France, there was a time of confusion. An assembly of deputies met from all parts of France to arrange a fresh government; and a very clever poet and author, named Lamartine, at first tried to bring about something like order, but he was not strong enough, and there was a great deal of tumult and disorder.

In truth, the Red Republicans, who did not want to see any one richer than themselves, were very much disappointed

that, though noblemen and gentlemen had no more rights than other people, yet still rich men kept their money and estates; and though all sorts of occupations were devised at Paris, for which they were highly paid, in hopes of keeping them quiet and contented, they only became more fierce and violent. They had devised a way of fortifying the streets, by seizing on all the carts, carriages, and cabs they could lay hands on, and fastening them together with ropes, so as to form a line across the street. Then they pulled up the paving-stones, and built them up, banking them up with earth, and thus making what they called a barricade. And when the top and back of this was thronged with men and boys armed with muskets, it was almost impossible to dislodge them.

In the end of June, 1848, there were three dreadful days of barricades. It was really a fight of the Red Republicans against the Tricolored. Liberty, Fraternity, and Equality were the watchwords of them both; but the Red Republicans meant much more than the Tricolored by these words, for they thought liberty was no order at all, and equality was that no person should be better off than the rest. The good Archbishop of Paris, Monseigneur Affre, going out on one of these miserable days to try to make peace, was shot through the back from behind a barricade, and died in a few hours.

However, General Cavaignac, one of the brave men who had been trained to war by the fighting in Algeria, so managed the soldiers and the National Guard that they put down the Red Republicans, and restored order, though not without shedding much blood, and sending many into exile.

Indeed, the two years 1847 and 1848 were unquiet all over Europe.

Much that had been settled at the Congress of Vienna, in 1814, after Napoleon had been overthrown, had been done more as if estates were being carved out than as if what was good for the people were considered; and there had been distress and discontent ever since, especially in Italy, where all the north was under the Emperor of Austria, and his German officers were very rough and disagreeable in the towns where they were quartered.

The Italians rose, and tried to shake them off by the help of the King of Sardinia; and at the same time there was a great rising against the Pope, Pius IX., at Rome. The Popes had held Rome for more than a thousand years, and there ruled the Western Church; but they had never been very good princes to their Roman subjects, and things had fallen into a sad state of confusion, which, when first he was chosen, Pius IX. had tried to improve; but his people went on too fast for him, and at last rose up and so alarmed him that he fled in the disguise of a servant behind an Austrian carriage.

Now, the Roman Catholics think the Pope cannot rule over the Church freely unless he has Rome quite of his own, and lives there as a prince, instead of only as a Bishop in a country belonging to some one else. And though there were so many in France who had not much faith in anything, yet there were a good many honest, religious people, who were very anxious to have him back, and said that it mattered more that he should govern the Church than that the Romans should be well off.

So a French army was sent to restore him; and the Italians were grievously disappointed, for the Austrians were putting them down in the north, and they thought Republicans bound to help them. But Rome was taken, and the Pope had his throne again; and a strong guard of French soldiers were placed in Rome, for without such help he could no longer have reigned.

The French at home were in more parties than ever. The Red Republicans still wanted to overthrow everything; the Moderate ones cared chiefly to keep peace and order; the Bouapartists longed to have another empire like Napoleon's; the Orleanists wished to bring back the Count of Paris, grandson of Louis Philippe; and the Legitimists still held fast by Henry V., the son of the murdered Duke of Berri, and the natural king by birth. Never was there such a house divided against itself; but, in truth, the real fear was of the Red Republicans. All the rest were ready to be quiet, and submit to anything so long as these could be kept down.

After much deliberating in the Assembly, it was settled to have a republic, with a president, as the Americans have. Then Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of Napoleon's brother Louis, offered himself as president, and was elected, all the quiet people and all the Bonapartists joining in the choice. Most of the army were Bonapartists, for the sake of the old victories of Napoleon; and when Algeria was quieted, and they came home, Louis

Napoleon had a great power in his hands. Soon he persuaded the people to change his title from president to that of first consul, as his uncle had once been called; and then every one began to see what would follow, but most were glad to have a strong hand over them, to give a little peace and rest after all the changes.

And the next time there was any chance of a disturbance at Paris, Louis Napoleon was beforehand with the mob. He surrounded them with soldiers, had cannon planted so as to command every street, and fired upon the mob before it had time to do any harm, then captured the ringleaders, and either had them executed or sent into banishment. Some violence and cruelty there certainly was, but the Parisians were taught whom they must obey, and quiet people were grateful. This master stroke is always called the coup d'etât, or stroke of policy, for it settled affairs for the time; and after it Louis Napoleon did as he chose, for no one durst resist him.



## CHAPTER XLVI.

THE SECOND EMPIRE.

A.D. 1852-1870.

N the beginning of the year 1852, the whole of the French nation was called upon to decide by vote whether they would form an empire again, or continue to be a republic. Every man, rich or poor, who was not a convict, had a vote; and the larger number decided for the empire, and for Louis Napoleon Bonaparte as the emperor. He considered himself as the successor of his uncle, and therefore called himself Napoleon III., counting the little child in whose favor the great Bonaparte had abdicated at Fontainebleau as the second Napoleon.

He married a Spanish lady of high rank, but not royal, whose mother was Scottish. Her name was Eugénie de Montijo, and she was one of the most lovely women of her time. She was pious and kind-hearted, and always ready to do anything good; but it was thought that the court would be more popular, and trade prosper more, if an example were set of great splendor and magnificence. So the ladies were encouraged to dress in a style of extravagance and brilliancy, with perpetual changes of fashion; and this, as the Parisian dresses are always the models of those of other

countries, has led to much folly in all grades of society everywhere. One son was born of this marriage, who was called the Prince Imperial.

The emperor ruled with a strong hand, but he got everything into order again, and he made Paris more beautiful than ever, throwing down old narrow streets, and building grand new ones, which, for the most part, had asphalt pavement, so that there might be no paving stones to take up and make into barricades. He took away a good many of the places to which old historical remembrances were attached; and it has never seemed plain whether he did so for the sake of sweeping away the old remembrances, or

only because they stood in the way of his plans.

The name the emperor wished to be called by was the Napoleon of Peace, as his uncle had been the Napoleon of War; but it was not always possible to keep the peace. In the year 1853, just after he had been crowned, the Russian emperor began to threaten to conquer Turkey, and thereupon the French joined with the English to protect the Sultan. French and English armies, both together, landed in Turkey, and then made an expedition to the Crimea, where the Russians had built a very strong fortified city named Sebastopol, whence to attack the Turks. shal Bugeaud was the French general, and, with Lord Raglan, commanded in the great battle fought on the banks of the Alma, and then laid siege to Sebastopol, where again they fought a dreadful battle, when the Russians sallied out, in the night of the 5th of November, 1854, and attacked the camp at Inkerman. All the winter and spring the siege lasted, the two armies having much bitter cold to fear as they watched in the trenches; but in the summer it was possible to assault the city, and while the English attacked the Redan, the French attacked the Malakoff Tower, and after much hard fighting this was taken. Then peace was made, on condition that all the fortifications of Sebastopol should be destroyed, and no fleet or army kept there for the future.

Having thus been allies in war, England and France became much greater friends, and Queen Victoria and the emperor made visits to one another; and the trade of the two nations was so mixed up together as to make it much less easy to go to war, for the emperor had a love and affection for England, which had been a home to him in his days of exile.

The Italians were more uneasy and miserable than ever under the rule of the Austrians, and begged Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, to help them, and become an Italian king over them. Louis Napoleon gave them his help, and went in person to Lombardy, where the French and Italians defeated the Austrians at Magenta and Solferino; after which there was again a peace, and Victor Emmanuel was owned as King of Italy, on condition that, in return for the help he had received, he should give to France

the little province of Nice, which had always been part of the dukedom of Savoy, the old inheritance of his forefathers long before they were kings, but which seemed as if it ought to be a part of France. The Romans hoped that they, too, should have shaken off the Papal government; but the guard of French soldiers was still maintained at Rome.

Another undertaking of the emperor was to bring Mexico into order. This country had been settled by Spaniards, and belonged to Spain until it! revolted; and for many years there had been constant revolutions, and very little law, so that it was full of outlaws and robbers. Some of the better disposed thought that they might do better if they set up a monarchy, and the French promised to help them. The Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria, was chosen, and went out, with his young wife Charlotte, daughter of the King of Holland, and guarded by a French army. But the Mexicans were much more fierce and treacherous than had been expected; and the French troops found that staying there only made them more bitter, and it was costly to keep them there. So they were brought home; and no sooner had they left Mexico, than the Mexicans rose up, made their emperor prisoner, and shot him, while his poor wife lost her senses from grief. They were a good and noble pair—true-hearted, and anxious to do right; and theirs is one of the saddest stories of our time.

The Emperor of the French had ruled prosperously for a long time; but the burning hatred of the Red Republicans was not quenched. His best advisers, too, were growing old and dying, and his own health and spirit were failing; but he was trying to teach the people to rule themselves in some degree, instead of expecting him to keep order with his power from above. He was anxious to be sure of his son reigning after him, and he put it to the vote all over France whether the empire should be hereditary.

The vote was in his favor, and he seemed quite secure. But at this time the Prussians had been gaining great successes both against Denmark and Austria, and the French were very jealous of them, and expected a fight for some of the provinces that lie along the Rhine. Just then, too, the Spaniards had risen, and driven away Queen Isabella, who had not ruled well; and they elected a cousin of the King of Prussia to be their king. He never accepted the Spanish crown, but the bare notion made the French furious, and there was a great cry from the whole nation that the pride of the Prussians must be put down. The emperor saw his popularity was failing him, and that his only chance was to please the people by going to war. Nobody knew that the army had been badly managed, and that it was quite changed from what it was when it fought in Algiers and the Crimea. Indeed, the French never think that anything but victory can

happen to them, so the army went off in high spirits to meet the Prussians on the Rhine—singing, shouting, drinking; and the emperor took his young son with him, and tried to seem as hopeful as they did; but all who saw him near saw that he was both ill and sad. This was in the summer of the year 1870.



#### CHAPTER XLVII.

THE SIEGE OF PARIS.

A.D. 1870-1871.

TERY one knew that whatever might be said to be the quarrel between France and Prussia, the truth was that the two fighting nations were jealous of one another, and wanted to measure their strength together. The Prussians had never forgotten the elder Napoleon's cruelty to their queen, and the harshness with which the whole nation had been treated; and all the Germans distrusted Napoleon III., and thought he had plans for spreading the French empire into the German provinces beyond the Rhine. All the Germans, there-

fore, felt as if they were defending their fatherland, and came to the army in a very different temper from the boastful one of the French.

It was in the provinces of the Rhine that the battle was to be fought ont. In the first fight, at Werth, the French were successful, and a great deal was made of the victory. The Prince Imperial was made to fire the first cannon, and all the newspapers profanely called it his baptism of fire. Indeed, one of the worst signs was that nobody was telling truth. The emperor had been deceived as to the strength and order of his army; and the whole French nation were entirely deceived as to the state of things with the army, and thought they were beating the Prussians, and should soon be at Berlin. Instead of this, all round the city of Sedan there was a most frightful battle, which lasted day after day, and in which the French were entirely beaten, and so surrounded and cut off from retreat by the German forces, that the emperor was obliged to surrender himself a prisoner to the King of Prussia.

He had before sent his son to England, as soon as he saw how things were going. The Empress Eugénie had been left as regent at Paris; but as soon as the dreadful news came, all the Parisians rose up, and declared that the emperor was deposed, and that they would have a republic again. All that her best friends could do for her was to help her to pass out of the Tuileries in a plain black dress, get into a fly, and be driven to the station, whence she safely reached England.

Marshal MacMahon and a large portion of the army who were in Sedan were made prisoners, and sent off to Germany. Still there was a general

belief that help must come—that an army would come home from Algeria, or be put together from the garrisons—or that the whole nation would rise up and drive out the enemy. So the cities of Strasburg, Phalsburg, and Nancy shut their gates, and bravely stood a siege from the Germans; and when the Parisians found that the main body of the enemy was advancing, they likewise prepared for a siege, under their commandant, General Trochu, a good man, but not enterprising. They were in a strange delirium of ungrateful joy at being rid of the empire; they went about knocking down the carved eagles and effacing the great crowned N's, and declaring that



SIEGE OF STRASBURG.

now they should prosper, as if the enemy were not actually on their own ground.

Almost every available man was enrolled in the National Guard or the Garde Mobile; but the Prussians put a stop to any warfare of the peasantry, for at a little village ealled Bazeille, where some shots were fired on them, they burnt and destroyed every building, and killed all who fell into their hands. They gave out that though regular soldiers would be treated as prisoners of war, and those who did not fight would not be hurt, there was to be no mercy for places where Germans were fired upon.

The Prussians meant to be just, but their justice was of a hard kind;

and though they hardly ever did violence to any one's person, they had less scruple about plundering than they ought to have had. Indeed, they had bitterly hated the French ever since the elder Napoleon had so tyrannously misused Prussia, and broken the heart of Queen Louisa, the mother of the King William who was now leading his forces to Paris; and much that they called retribution, lookers-on called revenge.

The king placed his headquarters in the grand old palace of Versailles, and thence besieged Paris, cutting off all supplies and all communication from ontside. No one could come in or out, save through the German camp, except in a balloon; and one of the Republican leaders, M. Gambetta, actually came out in a balloon, to try to raise the spirit of the rest of France to come to the relief of the capital. Letters came and went, too, by carrier pigeons; and tiny letters on thin paper, and newspapers in print so small that they could only be read with a magnifying glass, were prepared for this pigeon post. Meantime, the people ate up all their stores; and after finishing the mutton and beef, all the horses were seized, and the cats and dogs were killed; the flour was diluted with sawdust; and the starvation became all the more wretched as the winter came on; and there was as sad a want of fuel as of food. Meanwhile, the German shells were constantly flying in, destroying houses, and killing all whom their splinters struck.

It was as bad at Strasburg, while these Parisians were consoling themselves by offering garlands to the statue of that city in the Place de la Concorde; but Strasburg, Metz, and Phalsburg all were taken, and all the hopes of help from without faded away. The supposed army in the south never appeared at all, and one in the west, which at first had some success, was soon defeated. The Prussian army occupied more and more ground; and though the Parisian troops tried to sally out and attack the German camp, this turned out to be all in vain. For the Parisians, both in the National Guard and Garde Mobile, had no notion of obeying orders or observing discipline, and without these nobody can fight; while even as to bravery, they showed themselves sadly unlike their loud boasts of themselves. Nobody did show any steady courage but the few real soldiers, the gentlemen, and the Bretons; and their bravery ended in their being killed when no one supported them. It was all the worse, because there was bitter distrust between the Red Republicans and the Moderate party, and each expected to be betrayed by the other. The only pleasant thing to think of in the whole war was the care taken by a society, gathered from all nations chiefly Swiss, German, and English-for sending nurses to the wounded and help to the ruined. They were known by the Red Cross, and wherever this was seen they were respected.

One difficulty was—Who or what was the government which might make peace with the Prussians? but after half a year of siege, M. Thiers

and General Trochu, and others of the Moderate party, made terms. Paris was, in fact, surrendered; but the King of Prussia promised not to grieve the French by marching in at the head of his army, but to be content with quietly entering himself. The two provinces of Lorraine and Alsace, which used to be German, were to be given up to him; Prussian troops were to be left for a year in garrison in France; and a fine was to be paid. At the same time, quantities of food and firing were sent in for the famished Parisians, the prisoners were released, and among them the emperor, who went to England.



#### CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE COMMUNISTS.

A.D. 1871.

HE terms of the treaty were no sooner known, than all the ill-will and distrust of the Red Republicans openly broke out. They declared that they were betrayed; that their generals and the National Guards would not fight, and had sold them to the enemy; and that they would not give up their arms, or be bound by the treaty. They drew together on a height with their cannon, and closed the gates, and barricaded the streets again. The Government withdrew to Versailles, towait for the arrival of all the troops who had been in

captivity; and these Red Republicans did what they chose. One horrible deed was, shooting, and that with many repeated wounds, two generals who had tried to maintain discipline in the first siege, and had thus offended them.

A sort of government was set up, calling itself the Commune—an old word for a town council governing itself—and thus the Red Republicans were known as the Communists. They were either newspaper writers, or else workmen and mechanics; and there was one noble among them, quite as desperate as the rest. All the former pride in the first Bonaparte had turned into a ferocious hatred to the very name; so that even the great column in the Place Vendome, raised in honor of his victories, was thrown down; and the Communists were as furious against law, order, property, and religion as ever their grandfathers in the Reign of Terror had been. They turned the clergy out of the churches, and the Sisters of Charity out of the

hospitals, and uttered the maddest and most horrible blasphemies against all that was good or great. The women were equally violent, or even more so, with the men—they sang songs of liberty, and carried weapons, uttering



THE TUILERIES.

fearful threats. Some of the leaders had been captured, and kept at Versailles; whereupon they seized on the archbishop, Monseigneur Darboy, and five more clergy—good and holy men, who had spent their whole lives in the endeavor to teach and help them, and who, all through the siege, had toiled to lessen the sufferings of the poor. They were thrown into prison;

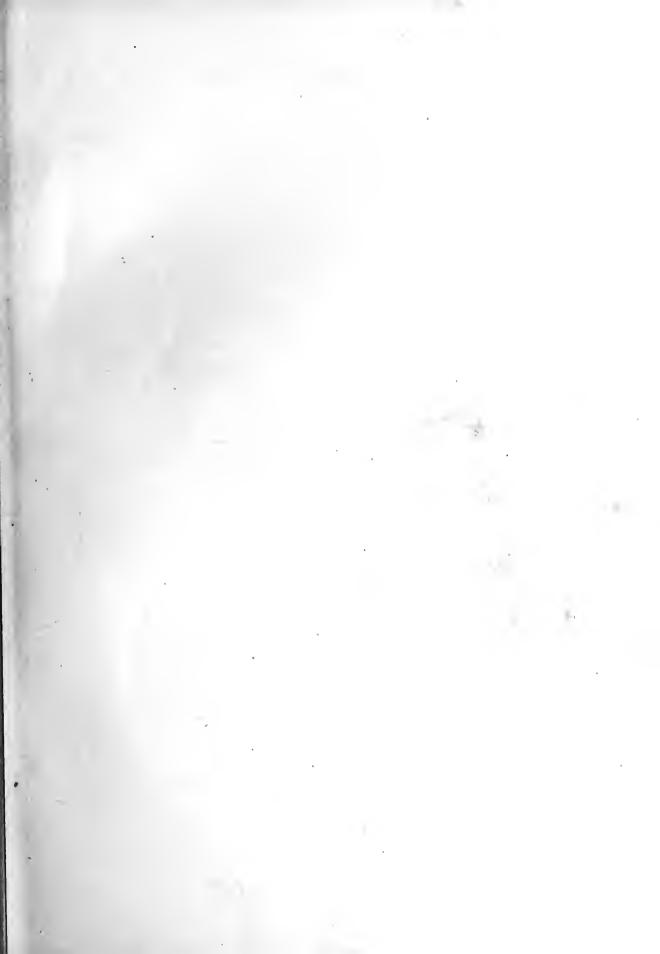
and when the Commune found that their own members were not released, and that Marshal MacMahon and the army were closely besieging Paris, all these good priests were brought to the prison of La Roquette, and there shot, and hastily buried. The good archbishop died with his hand uplifted, as if in the act of blessing his murderers. This was on the 24th of May, 1871.

All France was against the madmen who had possession of their much-loved Paris; but the Communists held out desperately, and forced many quiet citizens to fight, by making their carrying arms the only condition of obtaining food, which, of course, they could not earn by honest labor, as of old. At last, however, the soldiers from Versailles began to force their way in, and then, in their final madness, the Red Republicans set fire to the city. The Hotel de Ville was soon blazing, and so was the Tuileries. It was said that inflammable materials had been placed in them for this purpose, and that women went about throwing petroleum in at the windows of houses to set them on fire.

The Versailles government, their troops, and indeed all who looked on, were in a frenzy of rage and grief at seeing their beautiful city, the pride and darling of every Frenchman's heart, thus destroyed before their eyes. And as the soldiers slowly fought their way in, with cannon pointed down the streets, and mowing all before them, they made a most fearful slaughter of men and women alike—and, it may be feared, the innocent with the guilty. Indeed, the very cry of "une pétroleuse" was enough to cause a woman to be hunted down, and shot without further trial. There was a last stand made by the Communists in the great cemetery of Père la Chaise, where most of them died the death of wolves; and large herds of the captured were marched off toward Versailles—many to be shot at once, others imprisoned, and after trial sent off to prison, and exiled to Cayenne or New Caledonia.

Thus the Red Republic was extinguished in fire and blood, and order was restored. The city was found to be less injured by the fires than hadbeen feared when they were seen raging; and for the time M. Thiers ruled as a sort of president, and set matters as right as was possible in the torn and bleeding country. Meanwhile, the emperor, Napoleon III., died in his exile in England; and the nation began to consider what should be the government for the future. The old parties still existed—the Legitimists, still loyal to Henry, Count of Chambord; the Orleanists, wishing for a son or grandson of Louis Philippe; the Bonapartists, loving the memory of Napoleon III., and hoping to restore his son; the Moderate Tricolored Republicans, chiefly seeking rest and order, and now revenge upon Germany and the remnant of the Communists.

Henry, Count of Chambord, having no children, so that the Count of

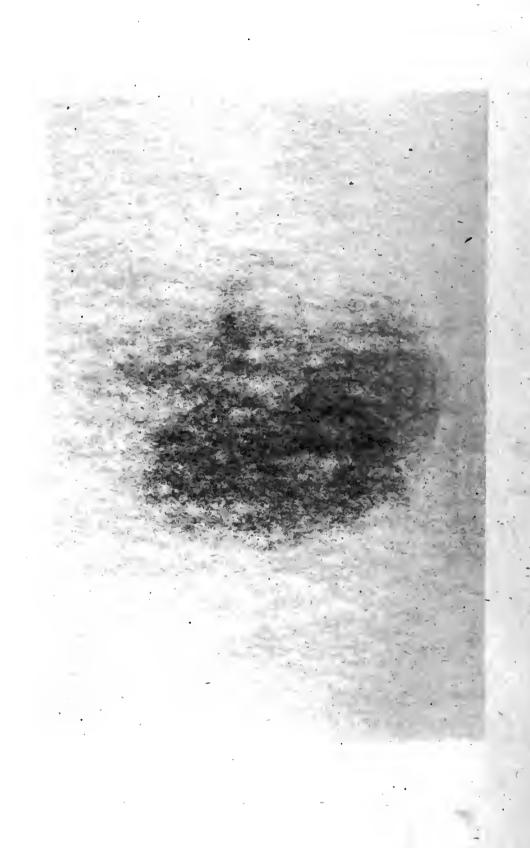




the conservate that he would come to his invited, but only to reign as they did, by the season of the people. He season king—the King of Plance, not of the French—to the Bourbons, not the tricolor—and the Eing 'Some to the Pope.

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Paris, eldest grandson of Lonis Philippe, was his right heir, there was a plan that the Legitimist and Orleans parties should join, and a proposal was made to restore the Count of Chambord as such a king as Louis Philippe was, and that the Count of Paris should reign after him.

But the Count of Chambord's answer was that he would come to his forefathers' throne if he were invited, but only to reign as they did, by the right given to his family by God, not as the chosen of the people. He would be the most Christian king—the King of France, not of the French—with the white flag of the Bourbons, not the tricolor—and the Eldest Son of the Church, obedient to the Pope.

Nobody except the old Legitimists was in a mood to accept this answer; and so, when the choice of a government was put to the vote of the nation, it was decided to have a republic, with a president, instead of a monarchy; and Marshal MacMahon was soon after elected as president.





ANGLO-SAXON WARRIORS OF THE TENTH CENTURY,

# STORIES OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

# CHAPTER I.

JULIUS CÆSAR.

B.C. 55.

EARLY two thousand years ago there was a brave captain whose name was Julius Cæsar. The soldiers he led to battle were very strong, and conquered the people wherever they went. They had no guns or gunpowder then; but they had swords and spears, and, to prevent themselves from being hurt, they had helmets or brazen caps on their heads, with long tufts of horse hair upon them, by way of ornament, and breast-plates of brass on their breasts, and on their arms they carried a sort of screen, made of strong leather. One of them

carried a little brass figure of an eagle on a long pole, with a scarlet flag

flying below, and wherever the eagle was seen, they all followed, and fought so bravely that nothing could long stand against them.

When Julius Cæsar rode at their head, with his keen, pale, hook-nosed face, and the scarlet cloak that the general always were, they were so proud of him, and so fond of him, that there was nothing they would not do for him.

Julius Cæsar heard that a little way off there was a country nobody knew anything about, except that the people were very fierce and savage, and that a sort of pearl was found in the shells of mussels which lived in the rivers. He could not bear that there should be any place that his own people, the Romans, did not know and subdue. So he commanded the ships to be prepared, and he and his soldiers embarked, watching the white cliffs on the other side of the sea grow higher and higher as he came nearer and nearer.

When he came quite up to them, he found the savages were there in earnest. They were tall men, with long red streaming hair, and such clothes as they had were woolen, checked like plaid; but many had their arms and breasts naked, and painted all over in blue patterns. They had spears and darts, and the chief men among them were in basket-work chariots, with a seythe in the middle of each wheel to cut down their enemies. They yelled and brandished their darts, to make Julius Caesar and his Roman soldiers keep away; but he only went on to a place where the shore was not quite so steep, and there commanded his soldiers to land. The savages had run along the shore too, and there was a terrible fight; but, at last, the man who earried the eagle jumped down into the middle of the natives, ealling out to his fellows that they must come after him, or they would lose their eagle. They all came rushing and leaping down, and thus they managed to force back the savages, and make their way to the shore.

There was not much worth having when they had made their way there. Though they came again the next year, and forced their way a good deal farther into the country, they saw chiefly bare downs, or heaths, or thick woods. The few houses were little more than piles of stones, and the people were rough and wild, and could do very little. The men hunted wild boars, and wolves and stags, and the women dug the ground, and raised a little corn, which they ground to flour between two stones to make bread; and they spun the wool of their sheep, dyed it with bright colors, and wove it into dresses. They had some strong places in the woods, with trunks of trees, cut down to shut them in from the enemy, with all their flocks and cattle; but Cæsar did not get into any of these. He only made the natives give him some of their pearls, and call the Romans their masters, and then he went back to his ships, and none of the set of savages who were alive when he came saw him or his Romans any more.

Do you know who these savages were who fought with Julius Cæsar? They were called Britons. The country he came to see is England, only it was not called so then. And the place where Julius Cæsar landed is called Deal, and, if you look at the map, where England and France most nearly touch one another, I think you will see the name Deal, and remember it was there that Julius Cæsar landed, and fought with the Britons.

It was fifty-five years before our blessed Saviour was born that the Romans came. So at the top of this chapter stands B.C. (Before Christ) 55.



#### CHAPTER II.

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN.

A.D. 41-418.

T

was nearly a hundred years before any more of the Romans came to Britain; but they were people who could not hear of a place without wanting to conquer it, and they never left off trying till they had done what they undertook.

One of their emperors, named Claudius, sent his soldiers to conquer the island, and then came to see it himself, and called himself Britanuicus in honor of the victory, just as if he had done it himself, instead of his generals. One British chief, whose name was Caradoc, who had fought very bravely against

the Romans, was brought to Rome, with chains on his hands and feet, and set before the emperor. As he stood there, he said that, when he looked at all the grand buildings of stone and marble in the streets, he could not think why the Romans should want to take away the poor rough stone huts of the Britons. Claudius was kind to Caradoc; but the Romans went on conquering Britain till they had won all the part of it that lies south of the river Tweed; and, as the people beyond that point were more fierce and savage still, a very strong wall, with a bank of earth and deep ditch, was made to keep them out, and always watched by Roman soldiers.

The Romans made beautiful straight roads all over the country, and they built towns. Almost all the towns whose names end in *chester* were begun by the Romans, and bits of their walls are to be seen still, built of very small bricks. Sometimes people dig up a bit of the beautiful pavement of colored tiles, in patterns, which used to be the floors of their houses, or a piece of their money, or one of their ornaments.

For the Romans held Britain for four hundred years, and tamed the wild people in the South, and taught them to speak and dress, and read and write like themselves, so that they could hardly be known from Romans. Only the wild ones beyond the wall, and in the mountains, were as savage as ever, and, now and then, used to come and steal the cattle, and burn the houses of their neighbors who had learnt better.

Another set of wild people used to come over in boats across the North Sea and German Ocean. These people had their home in the country that is called Holstein and Jutland. They were tall men, and had blue eyes and fair hair, and they were very strong, and good-natured in a rough sort of



REMAINS OF THE ROMAN WALL.

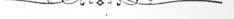
way, though they were fierce to their enemies. There was a great deal more fighting than any one has told us about; but the end of it all was that the Roman soldiers were wanted at home, and though the great British chief we call King Arthur fought very bravely, he could not drive back the blue-eyed men in the ships; but more and more came, till, at last, they got all the country, and drove the Britons, some up into the North, some into the mountains that rise along the West of the island, and some out into its west point.

The Britons used to eall the blue-eyed men Saxons; but they called themselves Angles, and the country was called after them Angle-land.

Don't you know what it is called now? England, and the people English; for these were their forefathers—their great-grea

As to the Britons, the English went on driving them back till they only kept their mountains. There they have gone on living ever since, and talking their own old language. The English called them Welsh, a name that meant strangers, and they are called Welsh still, and their country Wales. They made a great many grand stories about their last brave chief, Arthur, till, at last, they turned into a sort of fairy tale. It was said that, when King Arthur lay badly wounded after his last battle, he bade his friend fling his sword into the river, and that then three lovely ladies came in a boat, and carried him away to a secret island. The Welsh kept on saying, for years and years, that one day King Arthur would wake up again, and give them back all Britain, which used to be their own before the English got it for themselves; but the English have had England now for thirteen hundred years, and are likely to keep it still.

It was about four hundred years after our Lord was born that the Romans were going and the English coming.



## CHAPTER III.

THE ANGLE CHILDREN.

A.D. 597.

HE old English who had come to Britain were heathen, and believed in many false gods; the Sun, to whom they made Sunday sacred, as Monday was to the Moon, Wednesday to a great, terrible god, named Woden, and Thursday to a god called Thor, or Thunder. They thought a clap of thunder was the sound of the great hammer he carried in his hand. They thought their gods cared for people being brave, and that the souls of those who died fighting gallantly in battle were the happiest of all; but they did not care for

kindness or gentleness.

Thus they often did very cruel things, and one of the worst that they did was the stealing of men, women, and children from their homes, and

selling them to strangers, who made slaves of them. All England had not one king. There were generally about seven kings, each with a different part of the island; and, as they were often at war with one another, they used to steal one another's subjects, and sell them to merchants who came from Italy and Greece for them.

Some English children were made slaves, and earried to Rome, where they were set in the market-place to be sold. A good priest, named Gregory, was walking by. He saw their fair faces, blue eyes, and long light hair, and, stopping, he asked who they were. "Angles," he was told, "from the isle of Britain." "Angles!" he said, "they have angel faces, and they ought to be heirs with the angels in heaven." From that time this good man tried to find means to send teachers to teach the English the Christian faith. He had to wait for many years, and, in that time, he was made Pope, namely, Father-Bishop of Rome. At last he heard that one of the chief English kings, Ethelbert of Kent, had married Bertha, the daughter of the King of Paris, who was a Christian, and that she was to be allowed to bring a priest with her, and have a church to worship in.

Gregory thought this would make a beginning: so he sent a priest, whose name was Augustine, with a letter to King Ethelbert and Queen Bertha, and asked the king to listen to him. Ethelbert met Augustine in the open air, under a tree at Canterbury, and heard him tell about the true God, and Jesus Christ, whom He has sent; and, after some time, and a great deal of teaching, Ethelbert gave up worshipping Woden and Thor, and believed in the true God, and was baptized, and many of his people with him. Then Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury; and, one after another, in the course of the next hundred years, all the English kingdoms learnt to know God, and broke down their idols, and became Christian.

Bishops were appointed, and churches were built, and parishes were marked off—a great many of them the very same that exist now. Here and there, when men or women wanted to be very good indeed, and to give their whole lives to doing nothing but serving God, without any of the fighting and feasting, the buying and selling of the outer world, they built houses, where they might live apart, and churches, where there might be services seven times a day. These houses were named abbeys. Those for men were, sometimes, also called monasteries, and the men in them were termed monks, while the women were called nuns, and their homes convents or nunneries. They had plain dark dresses, and hoods, and the women always had veils. The monks used to promise that they would work as well as pray, so they used to build their abbeys by some forest or marsh, and bring it all into order, turning the wild place into fields, full of wheat. Others used to copy out the Holy Scriptures and other good books

upon parehment—because there was no paper in those days, nor any printing—drawing beautiful painted pictures at the beginning of the chapters, which were called illuminations. The nuns did needlework and embroidery, as hangings for the altar, and garments for the priests, all bright with beautiful colors, and stiff with gold. The English nuns' work was the most beautiful to be seen anywhere.

There were schools in the abbeys, where boys were taught reading, writing, singing, and Latin, to prepare them for being elergymen; but not many others thought it needful to have anything to do with books. Even the great men thought they could farm and feast, advise the king, and consent to the laws, hunt or fight, quite as well without reading, and they did not care for much besides; for, though they were Christians, they were still rude, rough, ignorant men, who liked nothing so well as a hunt or a feast, and slept away all the evening, especially when they could not get a harper to sing to them.

The English men used to wear a long dress like a carter's frock, and their legs were wound round with strips of cloth by way of stockings. Their houses were only of one story, and had no chimneys—only a hole at the top for the smoke to go out at; and no glass in the windows. The only glass there was at all had been brought from Italy to put into York Cathedral, and it was thought a great wonder. So the windows had shutters to keep out the rain and wind, and the fire was in the middle of the room. At dinner-time, about twelve o'clock, the lord and lady of the house sat upon cross-legged stools, and their children and servants sat on benches; and square bits of wood, called trenchers, were put before them for plates, while the servants carried round the meat on spits, and everybody cut off a piece with his own knife and ate it without a fork. They drank out of cows' horns, if they had not silver cups. But though they were so rough they were often good, brave people.



#### CHAPTER IV.

THE NORTHMEN.

A.D. 858-958.

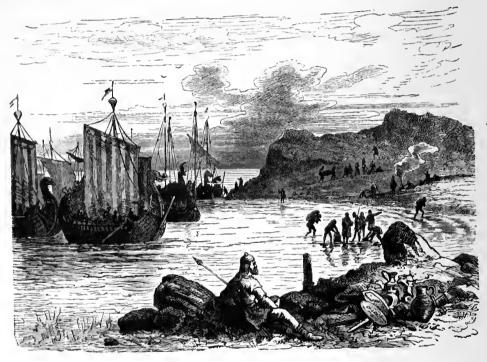
PHERE were many more of the light-haired, blue-eyed people on the further side of the North Sea who worshipped Thor and Woden still, and thought that their kindred in England had fallen from the old ways. Besides, they liked to make their fortunes by getting what they could from their neighbors. Nobody was thought brave or worthy, in Norway or Denmark, who had not made some voyages in a "long keel," as a ship was called, and fought bravely, and brought home gold cups and chains or jewels to show where he had been. Their

captains were called Sea Kings, and some of them went a great way, even into the Mediterranean Sea, and robbed the beautiful shores of Italy. So dreadful was it to see the fleet of long ships coming up to the shore, with a serpent for the figure-head, and a raven as the flag, and crowds of fierce warriors with axes in their hands longing for prey and bloodshed, that where we pray in church that God would deliver us from lightning and tempest, and battle and murder, our forefathers used to add, "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord deliver us."

To England these Northern men came in great swarms, and chiefly from Denmark, so that they were generally called "the Danes." They burnt the houses, drove off the cows and sheep, killed the men, and took away the women and children to be slaves; and they were always most cruel of all where they found an Abbey with any monks or nuns, because they hated the Christian faith. By this time those seven English kingdoms alluded to had all fallen into the hands of one king. Egbert, King of the West Saxons, who reigned at Winchester, is counted as the first king of all England. His four grandsons had dreadful battles with the Danes all their lives, and the three eldest all died quite young. The youngest was the greatest and best king England ever had—Alfred the Truth-teller. He was only twenty-two years old when he came to the throne, and the kingdom was overrun everywhere with the Danes. In the northern part some had even settled down, and made themselves at home, as the English had done four hundred years before, and more and more kept coming in their ships: so that, though Alfred beat them in battle again and again, there was no

such thing as driving them away. At last he had so very few faithful men left with him, that he thought it wise to send them away, and hide himself in the Somersetshire marsh country. There is a pretty story told of him that he was hidden in the hut of a poor herdsman, whose wife, thinking he was a poor wandering soldier as he sat by the fire mending his bow and arrows, desired him to turn the cakes she had set to bake upon the hearth. Presently she found them burning, and eried out angrily, "Lazy rogue! you can't turn the cakes, though you can eat them fast enough."

However, that same spring, the brave English gained more victories; Alfred came out of his hiding-place and gathered them all together, and beat



NORTHMEN LANDING IN ENGLAND.

the Danes, so that they asked for peace. He said he would allow those who had settled in the North of England to stay there, provided they would become Christians; and he stood godfather to their chief, and gave him the name of Ethelstane. After this, Alfred had stout English ships built to meet the Danes at sea before they could come and land in England; and thus he kept them off, so that for all the rest of his reign, and that of his son and grandsons, they could do very little mischief, and for a time left off coming at all, but went to rob other countries that were not so well guarded by brave kings.

But Alfred was not only a brave warrior. He was a most good and

holy man, who feared God above all things, and tried to do his very best for his people. He made good laws for them, and took care that every one should be justly treated, and that nobody should do his neighbor wrong without being punished. So many Abbeys had been burnt and the monks killed by the Danes, that there were hardly any books to be had, or scholars to read them. He invited learned men from abroad, and wrote and translated books himself for them; and he had a school in his house, where he made the young nobles learn with his own sons. He built up the churches, and gave alms to the poor; and he was always ready to hear the troubles of any poor man. Though he was always working so hard, he had a disease that used to cause him terrible pain almost every day. His last years were less peaceful than the middle ones of his reign, for the Danes tried to come again; but he beat them off by his ships at sea, and when he died at fiftytwo years old, in the year 901, he left England at rest and quiet; and the English always think of him as one of the greatest and best kings who ever reigned in England, or in any other country. As long as his children after him and his people went on in the good way he had taught them, all prospered with them, and no enemies hurt them; and this was all through the reigns of his son, his grandson, and great-grandsons. Their council of great men was called by a long word that means in English, "Wise Men's Meeting," and there they settled the affairs of the kingdom. The king's wife was not ealled queen, but lady; and what do you think lady means? It means "loaf-giver"-giver of bread to her household and the poor. So a lady's great work is to be charitable.



## CHAPTER V.

THE DANISH CONQUEST.

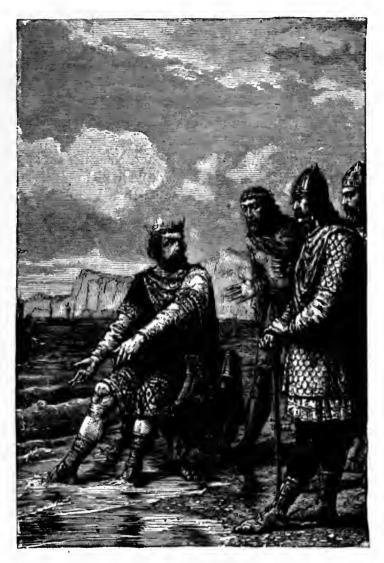
A.D. 958-1035.

HE last very prosperous king was Alfred's great grandson, Edgar, who was owned as their over-lord by all the kings of the remains of the Britons in Wales and Scotland. Once, eight of these kings came to meet him at Chester, and rowed him in his barge along the river Dee. It was the grandest day a king of England enjoyed for many years. Edgar was called the Peaceable, because there were no attacks by the Danes at all throughout his reign. In fact, the Northmen and

Danes had been fighting among themselves at home, and these fights generally ended in some one going off as a Sea-King, with all his friends, and trying to gain a new home in some fresh country. One great party of Northmen, under a very tall and mighty chief named Rollo, had, some time before, thus gone to France, and forced the king to give them a great piece of his country, just opposite to England, which was called after them Normandy. There they learned to talk French, and grew like Frenchmen, though they remained a great deal braver, and more spirited than any of their neighbors.

There were continually fleets of Danish ships coming to England; and the son of Edgar, whose name was Ethelred, was a helpless, cowardly sort of man, so slow and tardy, that his people called him Ethelred the Unready. Instead of fitting out ships to fight against the Danes, he took the money the ships ought to have cost to pay them to go away without plundering; and as to those who had come into the country without his leave, he called them his guard, took them into his pay, and let them live in the houses of the English, where they were very rude, and gave themselves great airs, making the English feed them on all their best meat, and bread, and beer, and always call them Lord Danes. He made friends himself with the Northmen, or Normans, who had settled in France, and married Emma, the daughter of their duke; but none of his plans prospered: things grew worse and worse, and his mind and his people's grew so bitter against the Danes, that at last it was agreed that, all over the South of England, every Englishman should rise up in one night and murder the Dane who lodged in his house.

Among those Danes who were thus wickedly killed was the sister of the King of Denmark. Of course he was furious when he heard of it, and came over to England determined to punish the eruel, treacherous king and people, and take the whole island for his own. He did punish the people, kill-



CANUTE BY THE SEASHORE.

ing, burning, and plundering wherever he went; but he could never get the king into his hands, for Ethelred went off in the height of the danger to Normandy, where he had before sent his wife Emma, and her children, leaving his eldest son (child of his first wife), Edmund Ironside, to fight for the kingdom as best he might.

This King of Denmark died in the midst of his English war; but his son Cnut went on with the conquest he had begun, and before long Ethelred the Unready died, and Edmund Ironside was murdered, and Cnut became King of England, as well as of Denmark. He became a Christian, and married Emma, Ethelred's widow, though she was much older than himself. He had been a hard and cruel man, but he now laid aside his evil ways, and became a noble and wise and just king, a lover of churches and good men: and the English seem to have been as well off under him as if he had been one of their own kings. There is no king of whom more pleasant stories are told. One is of his wanting to go to church at Ely Abbey one cold Candlemas Day. Ely was on a hill, in the middle of a great marsh. The marsh was frozen over; but the king's servants told him that the ice was not strong enough to bear, and they all stood looking at it. Then out stepped a stout countryman, who was so fat, that his nickname was The Pudding. "Are you all afraid!" he said, "I will go over at once before the king." "Will you so?" said the king; "then I will come after you, for whatever bears you will bear me." Cnut was a little, slight man, and he got easily over, and Pudding got a piece of land for his reward.

These servants of the king used to flatter him. They told him he was lord of land and sea, and that everything would obey him. "Let us try," said Cnut, who wished to show them how foolish and profane they were; "bring out my chair to the sea-side." He was at Southampton at the time, close to the sea, and the tide was coming in. "Now sea," he said, as he sat down, "I am thy lord; dare not to come near, nor to wet my feet." Of course the waves rolled on, and splashed over him; and he turned to his servants, and bade them never say words that took away from the honor due to the only Lord of heaven and earth. He never put on his crown again after this, but hung it up in Winehester Cathedral. He was a thorough good king, and there was much grief when he died, stranger though he was.

A great many Danes had made their homes in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, ever since Alfred's time, and some of their customs and words still remain in England. The worst of them was that they were great drunkards, and the English learnt this bad custom from them.



#### CHAPTER VI.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

A.D. 1035-1066.

UT left three sons; but one was content to be only King of Denmark, and the other two died very soon. So a great English nobleman, called Earl Godwin, set up as king—Edward, one of those sons of Ethelred the Unready who had been sent away to Normandy. He was a very kind, good, pious man, who loved to do good. He began the building of the grand church at Westminster Abbey, and he was so holy that he was called the Confessor, which is a word for good men not great enough to be called saints.

He was too good-natured, as you will say when you hear that one day, when he was in bed, he saw a thief come cautiously into his room, open the chest where his treasure was, and take out the money-bags. Instead of calling any one, or seizing the man, the king only said, sleepily, "Take care, you rogue, or my chancellor will catch you and give you a good whipping."

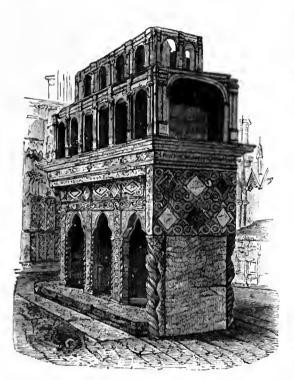
It can be easily seen that nobody much minded such a king as this, and so there were many disturbances in his time. Some of them rose out of the king—who had been brought up in Normandy—liking the Normans better than the English. They really were much cleverer and more sensible, for they had learnt a great deal in France, while the English had forgotten much of what Alfred and his sons had taught them, and all through the long, sad reign of Ethelred had been getting more dull, and clumsy, and rude. Moreover, they had learnt of the Danes to be sad drunkards; but both they and the Danes thought the Norman French fine gentlemen, and could not bear the sight of them.

Think, then, how angry they all were when it began to be said that King Edward wanted to leave his kingdom of England to his mother's Norman nephew, Duke William, because all his own near relations were still little boys, not likely to be grown up by the time the old king died. Many of the English wished for Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, a brave, spirited man; but Edward sent him to Normandy, and there Duke William made him swear an oath not to do anything to hinder the kingdom from being given to Duke William.

Old King Edward died soon after, and Harold said at once that his

promise had been forced and cheated from him, so that he need not keep it, and he was crowned King of England. This filled William with anger. He called all his fighting Normans together, fitted out ships, and sailed across the English Channel to Dover. The figure-head of his own ship was a likeness of his second little boy, named William. He landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, and set up his camp while Harold was away in the North, fighting with a runaway brother of his own, who had brought the Norwegians to attack Yorkshire. Harold had just won a great battle over these enemies when he heard that William and his Normans had landed, and he had to hurry the whole length of England to meet them.

Many of the English would not join him, because they did not want him



EDWARD THE CONFESSOR'S TOMB.

for their king. But though his army was not large, it was very brave. When he reached Sussex, he placed all his men on the top of a low hill, near Hastings, and caused them to make a fence all round, with a ditch before it, and in the middle was his own standard, with a fighting man embroidered upon it. Then the Normans rode up on their war-horses to attack him, one brave knight going first, singing. The war-horses stumbled in the ditch, and the long spears of the English killed both men and horses. William ordered his archers to shoot their arrows high in the They came down like hail into the faces and on the heads of the English. Harold himself was pierced by one in the The Normans charged eye.

the fence again and broke through; and, by the time night came on, Harold himself, and all his brave Englishmen were dead. They did not flee away; they all stayed, and were killed, fighting to the last; and only then was Harold's standard of the fighting man rooted up, and William's standard—a cross, which had been blessed by the Pope—planted instead of it. So ended the battle of Hastings, in the year 1066.

We have related a great many "conquests" hitherto—the Roman conquest, the English conquest, the Danish conquest, and now the Norman conquest. But there have been no more since; and the kings and queens have gone on in one long line ever since, from William of Normandy down to Queen Victoria.



# CHAPTER VII.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

A.D. 1066-1087.

HE king who had conquered England was a brave, strong man, who had been used to fighting and struggling ever since he was a young child.

He really feared God, and was in many ways a good man; but it was not right of him to come and take another people's country by force; and having done one wrong thing often makes people grow worse and worse. Many of the English were unwilling to have William as their king,

and his Norman friends were angry that he would not let them have more of the English lands, nor break the English laws. So they were often rising up against him; and each time he had to put them down he grew more harsh and stern. He did not want to be cruel; but he did many cruel things, because it was the only way to keep England.

When the people in Northumberland rose against him, and tried to get back the old set of kings, he had the whole country wasted with fire and sword, till hardly a town or village was left standing. He did this to punish the Northumbrians, and frighten the rest. But he did another thing that was worse, because it was only for his own amusement. In Hampshire, near his castle of Winchester, there was a great space of heathy ground, and holly copse and beeches and oaks above it, with deer and boars running wild in the glades—a beautiful place for hunting, only that there were so many villages in it that the creatures were disturbed and killed. William liked hunting more than anything else—his people said he loved the high deer as if he was their father,—and to keep the place clear for them, he turned out all the inhabitants, and pulled down their houses, and made laws against any one killing his game. The place he thus cleared is still called the New Forest, though it is a thousand years old.

46

An old Norman law that the English grumbled about very much was, that as soon as a bell was rung at eight o'clock every evening, every one was to put out candle and fire, and go to bed. The bell was called the curfew,

and many old churches ring it still.

William caused a great list to be made of all the lands in the country, and who held them. This list exists still, and is called the Domesday Book. It shows that a great deal had been taken from the English and given to the Normans. The king built castles, with immensely thick, strong walls, and loop-hole windows, whence to shoot arrows; and here he placed his Normans to keep the English down. But the Normans were even more unruly than the English, and only his strong hand kept them in order. They rode about in armor\*—helmets on their heads, a shirt of mail, made of chains of iron linked together, over their bodies, gloves and boots of iron, swords by their sides, and lances in their hands—and thus they could bear down all before them. They called themselves knights, and were always made to take an oath to befriend the weak, and poor, and helpless; but they did not often keep it toward the poor English.

William had four sons—Robert, who was called Court-hose or Short-legs; William, called Rufus, because he had red hair; Henry, called Beau-clerc, or the fine scholar; and Richard, who was still a lad when he was killed by a

stag in the New Forest.

Robert, the eldest, was a wild, rude, thoughtless youth; but he fancied himself fit to govern Normandy, and asked his father to give it up to him. King William answered, "I never take my clothes off before I go to bed," meaning that Robert must wait for his death. Robert could not bear to be laughed at, and was very angry. Soon after, when he was in the castlecourt, his two brothers, William and Henry, grew riotous, and poured water down from the upper windows on him and his friends. He flew into a passion, dashed up-stairs with his sword in his hand, and might have killed his brothers if their father had not come in to protect them. Then he threw himself on his horse and galloped away, persuaded some friends to join him, and actually fought a battle with his own father, in which the old king was thrown off his horse, and hurt in the hand. Then Robert wandered about, living on money that his mother, Queen Matilda, sent him, though his father was angry with her for doing so, and this made the first quarrel the husband and wife ever had.

Not long after, William went to war with the King of France. He had caused a city to be burnt down, and was riding through the ruins, when his horse trod on some hot ashes, and began to plunge. The king was thrown forward on the saddle, and, being a very heavy, stout man, was so

DEPARTURE FOR THE HINT



much hurt, that, after a few weeks, in the year 1087, he died at a little monastery, a short way from Rouen, the chief city of his dukedom of Normandy.

He was the greatest man of his time, and he had much good in him; and when he lay on his death-bed he grieved much for all the evil he had brought upon the English; but that could not undo it. He had been a great church-builder, and so were his Norman bishops and barons. You may always know their work, because it has round pillars, and round arches, with broad borders of zigzags, and all manner of patterns round them.

In the end, the coming of the Normans did the English much good, by brightening them up and making them less dull and heavy; but they did not like having a king and court who talked French, and who cared more for Normandy than for England.



## CHAPTER VIII.

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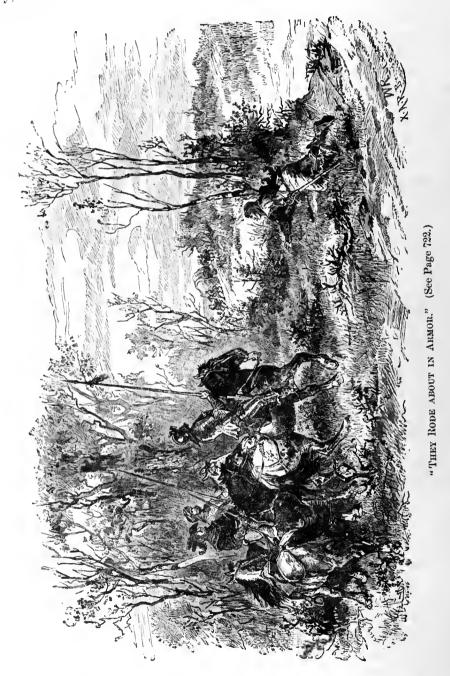
WILLIAM II., RUFUS.

A.D. 1087-1100.

LLIAM the Conqueror was obliged to let Normandy fall to Robert, his eldest son; but he thought he could do as he pleased about England, which he had won for himself. So he sent off his second son, William, to England, with his ring to Westminster, giving him a message that he hoped the English people would have him for their king. And they did take him, though they would hardly have done so if they had known what he would be like when he was left to himself. But while he was kept under by his

father, they only knew that he had red hair and a ruddy face, and had more sense than his brother Robert. He is sometimes called the Red King, but more commonly William Rufus. Things went worse than ever with the poor English in his time; for, at least, William the Conqueror had made everybody mind the law; but now, William Rufus let his cruel soldiers do just as they pleased. They would come into the farms, have the best of everything set before them, beat and misuse the people, carry off whatever they pleased, and spoil what they did not want. It was of no use to complain, for the king would only laugh and make jokes. He did not care for God or man; only for being powerful, for feasting, and for hunting.

Just at this time there was a great stir in Europe. Jerusalem—that holy city, where our blessed Lord had taught, where He had been crucified,



and where He had risen from the dead-was a place where every one wished to go and worship, and this they called going on pilgrimage. A beautiful

church had once been built over the sepulchre where our Lord had lain, and enriched with gifts. But for a long time past Jerusalem had been in the hands of an Eastern people, who think their false prophet, Mohammed, greater than our blessed Lord. These Mohammedans used to rob and illtreat the pilgrims, and make them pay great sums of money for leave to come into Jerusalem. At last a pilgrim, named Peter the Hermit, came home, and got leave from the Pope to try to waken up all the Christian princes and knights to go to the Holy Land, and fight to get the Holy Sepulchre back into Christian hands again. He used to preach in the open air, and the people who heard him were so stirred up that they all shouted out, "It is God's will! It is God's will!" And each who undertook to go and fight in the East received a cross cut out in cloth, red or white, to wear on his shoulder. Many thousands promised to go on this crusade, as they called it, and among them was Robert, Duke of Normandy. But he had wasted his money, so that he could not fit out an army to take with him. So he offered to give up Normandy to his brother William while he was gone, if William would let him have the money he wanted. The Red King was very ready to make such a bargain, but he laughed at the Crusaders, and thought that they were wasting their time and trouble.

They had a very good man to lead them, named Godfrey de Bouillon; and, after many toils and troubles, they did gain Jernsalem, and could kneel, weeping, at the Holy Sepulchre. It was proposed to make Robert King of Jerusalem, but he would not accept the offer, and Godfrey was made king instead, and stayed to guard the holy places, while Duke Robert set out on his return home.

In the meantime, the Red King had gone on in as fierce and ungodly a way as ever, laughing good advice to scorn, and driving away the good Arehbishop of Canterbury, St. Anselm, and every one else who tried to warn him or withstand his wickedness. One day, in the year 1100, he went out to hunt deer in the New Forest, which his father had wasted, laughing and jesting in his rough way. By and by he was found dead under an oaktree, with an arrow through his heart; and a wood-cutter took up his body in his cart, and carried it to Winchester Cathedral, where it was buried.

Who shot the arrow nobody knew, and nobody ever will know. Some thought it must be a knight, named Walter Tyrrell, to whom the king had given three long good arrows that morning. He rode straight away to Southampton, and went off to the Holy Land; so it is likely that he knew something about the king's death. But he never seems to have told any one, whether it was only an accident, or a murder, or who did it. Anyway, it was a fearful end, for a bad man to die in his sin, without a moment to repent and pray.

#### CHAPTER IX.

HENRY I., BEAUCLERC.

A.D. 1100-1135.

ENRY, the brother of William Rufus, was one of the hunting party: and as soon as the cry spread through the forest that the king was dead, he rode off at full speed to Winchester, and took possession of all his brother's treasure. William Rufus had never been married, and left no children, and Henry was much the least violent and most sensible of the brothers; and, as he promised to govern according to the old laws of England, he did not find it difficult to persuade the people to let him be crowned king.

He was not really a good man, and he could be very cruel sometimes, as well as false and cunning; but he kept good order, and would not allow such horrible things to be done as in his brother's time. So the Euglish were better off than they had been, and used to say the king would let nobody break the laws but himself. They were pleased, too, that Henry married a lady who was half English—Maude, the daughter of Malcolm Greathead, King of Scotland, and of a lady of the old English royal line. They loved her greatly, and called her good Queen Maude.

Robert came back to Normandy, and tried to make himself King of England; but Henry soon drove him back. The brothers went on quarreling for some years, and Robert managed Normandy miserably, and wasted his money, so that he sometimes had no clothes to wear, and lay in bed for want of them.

Some of the Normans could not bear this any longer, and invited Henry to come and take the dukedom. He came with an army, many of whom were English, and fought a battle with Robert and his faithful Normans at Tenchebray, in Normandy. They gained a great victory, and the English thought it made up for Hastings. Poor Robert was made prisoner by his brother, who sent him off to Cardiff Castle, in Wales, where he lived for twenty-eight years, and then died, and was buried in Gloucester Cathedral, with his figure made in bog oak over his monument.

Henry had two children—William and Maude. The girl was married to the Emperor of Germany, and the boy was to be the husband of Alice, daughter to the Count of Anjou, a great French prince, whose lands were

near Normandy. It was the custom to marry children very young then, before they were old enough to leave their parents and make a home for themselves. So William was taken by his father to Anjou, and there married to the little girl, and then she was left behind, while he was to return to England with his father. Just as he was going to embark, a man came to the king, and begged to have the honor of taking him in his new vessel. called the White Ship, saying that his father had steered William the Conqueror's ship. Heury could not change his own plans; but, as the man begged so hard, he said his son, the young bridegroom, and his friends might go in the White Ship. They sailed in the evening, and there was great merry-making on board, till the sailors grew so drunk that they did not know how to guide the ship, and ran her against a rock. She filled with water and began to sink. A boat was lowered, and William safely placed in it; but, just as he was rowed off, he heard the cries of the ladies who were left behind, and caused the oarsmen to turn back for them. many drowning wretches crowded into it, as soon as it came near, that it sank with their weight, and all were lost. Only the top-mast of the ship remained above water, and to it clung a butcher and the owner of the ship all night long. When daylight came, and the owner knew that the king's son was really dead, and by his fault, he lost heart, let go the mast and was drowned. Only the butcher was taken off alive; and for a long time no one dared to tell the king what had happened. At last a boy was sent to fall at his feet, and tell him his son was dead. He was a broken-hearted man, and never knew gladness again all the rest of his life.

His daughter Maude had lost her German husband, and come home. He made her marry Geoffrey of Anjou, the brother of his son's young wife, and called upon all his chief noblemen to swear that they would take her for their queen in England and their duchess in Normandy after his own death.

He did not live much longer. His death was caused, in the year 1135, by eating too much of the fish called lamprey, and he was buried in Reading Abbey.



## CHAPTER X.

STEPHEN.

A.D. 1135-1154.

EITHER English nor Normans had ever been ruled by a woman, and the Empress Maude, as she still called herself, was a proud, disagreeable, ill-tempered woman, whom nobody liked. So her consin, Stephen de Blois—whose mother, Adela, had been a daughter of William the Conqueror—thought to obtain the crown of England by promising to give every one what they wished. It was very wrong of him; for he, like all the other barons, had sworn that Maude should reign. But the people knew he was a kindly, gracious sort of

person, and greatly preferred him to her. So he was crowned; and at once all the Norman barons, whom King Henry had kept down, began to think they could have their own way. They built strong castles, and hired men, with whom they made war upon each other, robbed one another's tenants, and, when they saw a peaceable traveler on his way, they would dash down upon him, drag him into the castle, take away all the jewels or money he had about him, or, if he had none, they would shut him up and torment him till he could get his friends to pay them a sum to let him loose.

Stephen, who was a kind-hearted man himself, tried to stop these cruelties; but then the barons turned round on him, told him he was not their proper king, and invited Mande to come and be crowned in his stead. came very willingly; and her uncle, King David of Scotland, set out with an army to fight for her; but all the English in the north came out to drive him back; and they beat him and his Scots at what they called the Battle of the Standard, because the English had a holy standard, which was kept in Durham Cathedral. Soon after, Stephen was taken prisoner at a battle at Lincoln, and there was nothing to prevent Maude from being queen but her own bad temper. She went to Winchester, and was there proclaimed; but she would not speak kindly or gently to the people; and when her friends entreated her to reply more kindly, she flew into a passion, and it is even said that she gave a box on the ear to her uncle—the good King of Scotland, who had come to help her—for reproving her for her harsh answers. When Stephen's wife came to beg her to set him free, promising that he should go away beyond the seas, and never interfere with her again,

she would not listen, and drove her away. But she soon found how foolish she had been. Stephen's friends would have been willing that he should give up trying to be king, but they could not leave him in prison for life; and



NORMAN BARONS WAYLAYING TRAVELERS.

so they went on fighting for him, while more and more of the English joined them, as they felt how bad and unkind a queen they had in the Empress. Indeed, she was so proud and violent, that her husband would not come

over to England to help her, but stayed to govern Normandy. She was soon in great distress, and had to flee from Winchester, riding through the midst of the enemy, and losing almost all her friends by the way, as they were slain or made prisoners. Her best helper of all—Earl Robert of Gloucester—was taken while guarding her; and she could only get to his town of Gloucester by lying down in a coffin, with holes for air, and being thus carried through all the country, where she had made every one hate her.

Stephen's wife offered to set the Earl free, if the other side would release her husband; and this exchange was brought about. Robert then went to Normandy, to fetch Maude's little son Henry, who was ten years old, leaving her, as he thought, safe in Oxford Castle; but no sooner was he gone than Stephen brought his army, and besieged the castle—that is, he brought his men round it, tried to climb up the walls, or beat them down with heavy beams, and hindered any food from being brought in. Everything in the castle that could be eaten was gone; but Maude was determined not to fall into her enemy's hands. It was the depth of winter; the river below the walls was frozen over, and snow was on the ground. One dark night, Maude dressed herself and three of her knights all in white, and they were, one by one, let down by ropes from the walls. No one saw them in the snow. They crossed the river on the ice, walked a great part of the night, and at last came to Abingdon, where horses were waiting for them, and thence they rode to Wallingford, where Maude met her little son.

There was not much more fighting after this. Stephen kept all the eastern part of the kingdom, and Henry was brought up at Gloucester till his father sent for him, to take leave of him before going on a crusade. Geoffrey died during this crusade. He was fond of hunting, and was generally seen with a spray of broom blossom in his cap. The French name for this plant is *genet*; and thus his nickname was "Plantagenet;" and this became a

kind of surname to the kings of England.

Henry, called Fitz-empress—or "the Empress's son"—came to England again as soon as he was grown up; but, instead of going to war, he made an agreement with Stephen. Henry would not attack Stephen any more, but leave him to reign all the days of his life, provided Stephen engaged that Henry should reign instead of his own son after his death. This made Stephen's son, Eustace, very angry, and he went away in a rage to raise troops to maintain his cause; but he died suddenly in the midst of his wild doings, and the king, his father, did not live long after him, but died in the year 1154.

Maude had learnt wisdom by her misfortunes. She had no further desire to be queen, but lived a retired life in a convent, and was much more respected there than as queen.

# CHAPTER XI.

HENRY II., FITZ-EMPRESS.

A.D. 1154-1189.

ENRY FITZ-EMPRESS is counted as the first king of the Plantagenet family, also called the House of Anjou. He was a very clever, brisk, spirited man, who hardly ever sat down, but was always going from place to place, and who would let nobody disobey him. He kept everybody in order, pulled down almost all the Castles that had been built in Stephen's time, and would not let the barons ill-treat the people. Indeed, every one had been so mixed up together during the wars in Stephen's reign, that the grandchildren of

the Normans who had come over with William the Conqueror were now quite English in their feelings. French was, however, chiefly spoken at court. The king was really a Frenchman, and he married a French wife, Eleanor, the lady of Aquitaine, a great dukedom in the south of France; and, as Henry had already Normandy and Anjou, he really was lord of nearly half France. He ruled England well; but he was not a good man, for he cared for power and pleasure more than for what was right; and sometimes he fell into such rages that he would roll on the floor, and bite the rushes and sticks it was strewn with. He made many laws. One was that, if a priest or monk was thought to have committed any crime, he should be tried by the king's judge, instead of by the bishop. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas à Becket, did not think it right to consent to this law; and, though he and the king had once been great friends, Henry was so angry with him that he was forced to leave England, and take shelter with the King of France. Six years passed by, and the king pretended to be reconciled to him, but still, when they met, would not give him the kiss of peace. The arehbishop knew that this showed that the king still hated him; but his flock had been so long without a shepherd that he thought it his duty to go back to them. Just after his return, he laid under eensure some persons who had given offence. They went and complained to the king, and Henry exclaimed in a passion, "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four of his knights who heard these words set forth for Canterbury. The arehbishop guessed why they were come; but he would not flee again, and waited for them by the altar in the cathedral, not

even letting the doors be shut. There they slew him; and thither, in great grief at the effect of his own words, the king came—three years later—to show his penitence by entering barefoot, kneeling before Thomas's tomb, and causing every priest or monk in turn to strike him with a rod. We should not exactly call Thomas a martyr now, but he was thought so then, because he died for upholding the privileges of the Church, and he was held to be a very great saint.

While this dispute was going on, the Earl of Pembroke, called Strongbow, one of Henry's nobles, had gone over to Ireland, and obtained a little kingdom there, which he professed to hold of Henry; and thus the Kings of England became Lords of Ireland, though for a long time they only had the Province of Leinster, and were always at war with the Irish

around.

Henry was a most powerful king; but his latter years were very unhappy. His wife was not a good woman, and her sons were all disobedient and rebellious. Once all the three eldest, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey, and their mother, ran away together from his court, and began to make war upon him. He was much stronger and wiser than they, so he soon forced them to submit; and he sent Queen Eleanor away, and shut her up in a strong castle in England as long as he lived. Her sons were much more fond of her than of their father, and they thought this usage so hard, that they were all the more ready to break out against him. The eldest son, Henry, was leading an army against his father, when he was taken ill, and felt himself dying. He sent an entreaty that his father would forgive him, and come to see him; but the young man had so often been false and treacherous, that Henry feared it was only a trick to get him as a prisoner, and only sent his ring and a message of pardon; and young Henry died, pressing the ring to his lips, and longing to hear his father's voice.

Geoffrey, the third son, was killed by a fall from his horse, and there were only two left alive, Richard and John. Just at this time, news came that the Mohammedans in the Holy Land had won Jerusalem back again; and the Pope called on all Christian princes to leave off quarreling, and go

on a crusade to recover the Holy Sepulchre.

The kings of England and France, young Richard, and many more, were roused to take the cross; but while arrangements for going were being made, a fresh dispute about them arose, and Richard went away in a rage, got his friends together, and, with King Philip of France to help him, began to make war. His father was feeble, and worn out, and could not resist as in former times. He fell ill, and gave up the struggle, saying he would grant all they asked. The list of Richard's friends whom he was to pardon was brought to him, and the first name he saw in it was that of John, his youngest son, and his darling, the one who had never before rebelled. That quite broke his heart, his illness grew worse, and he talked about an old eagle being torn to pieces by his eaglets. And so, in the year 1189, Henry II. died the saddest death, perhaps, that an old man can die, for his sons had brought down his gray hairs with sorrow to the grave.



#### CHAPTER XII.

RICHARD I., LION-HEART.

A.D. 1189-1199.

CHARD was greatly grieved at his father's death, and when he came and looked at the dead body, in Fontevraud Abbey Church, he cried out, "Alas! it was I who killed him!" But it was too late now: he could not make up for what he had done, and he had to think about the Crusade he had promised to make. Richard was so brave and strong that he was called Lion-heart; he was very noble and good in some ways, but his fierce, passionate temper did him a great deal of harm. He, and King Philip of France, and several other great princes, all

met in the Island of Sicily in the Mediterranean Sea, and thence sailed for the Holy Land. The lady whom Richard was to marry came to meet him in Sicily. Her name was Berengaria; but, as it was Lent, he did not marry her then. She went on to the Holy Land in a ship with his sister Joan, and tried to land in the island of Cyprus; but the people were inhospitable, and would not let them come. So Richard, in his great anger, conquered

the isle, and was married to Berengaria there.

The Mohammedans who held Palestine at that time were called Saracens, and had a very brave prince at their head named Saladin, which means Splendor of Religion. He was very good, just, upright, and truth-telling, and his Saracens fought so well, that the Crusaders would hardly have won a bit of ground if the Lion-heart had not been so brave. At last, they did take one city on the coast named Acre; and one of the princes, Leopold, Duke of Austria, set up his banner on the walls. Richard did not think it ought to be there: he pulled it up and threw it down into the ditch, asking the duke how he dared take the honors of a king. Leopold was sullen and brooded over the insult, and King Philip thought Richard so overbearing,

that he could not bear to be in the army with him any longer. In truth, though Philip had pretended to be his friend, and had taken his part against his father, that was really only to hurt King Henry; he hated Richard quite as much, or more, and only wanted to get home first in order to do him as much harm as he could while he was away. So Philip said it was too hot for him in the Holy Land, and made him ill. He sailed back to France, while Richard remained, though the climate really did hurt his health, and he often had fevers there. When he was ill, Saladin used to send him grapes, and do all he could to show how highly he thought of so brave a man. Once Saladin sent him a beautiful horse; Richard told the Earl of Salisbury to try it, and no sooner was the earl mounted, than the horse ran away with him to the Saracen army. Saladin was very much vexed, and was afraid it would be taken for a trick to make the English king prisoner, and he gave the earl a quieter horse to ride back with. Richard fought one terrible battle at Joppa with the Saracens, and then he tried to go on to take Jerusalem; but he wanted to leave a good strong castle behind him at Ascalon, and set all his men to work to build it up. When they grumbled, he worked with them, and asked the duke to do the same; but Leopold said gruffly that he was not a carpenter or a mason. Richard was so provoked that he struck him a blow, and the duke went home in a rage.

So many men had gone home, that Richard found his army was not strong enough to try to take Jerusalem. He was greatly grieved, for he knew it was his own fault for not having shown the temper of a Crusader; and when he came to the top of a hill, whence the Holy City could be seen, he would not look at it, but turned away, saying, "They who are not worthy to win it are not worthy to behold it." It was of no use for him to stay with so few men; besides, tidings came from home that King Philip and his own brother, John, were doing all the mischief they could. So he made a peace for three years between the Saracens and Christians, hoping to come back again after that to rescue Jerusalem. But on his way home there were. terrible storms; his ships were scattered, and his own ship was driven up into the Adriatic Sea, where he was robbed by pirates, or sea-robbers, and then was shipwrecked. There was no way for him to get home but through the lands of Leopold of Austria; so he pretended to be a merchant, and set out attended only by a boy. He fell ill at a little inn, and while he was in bed the boy went into the kitchen with the king's glove in his belt. It was an embroidered glove, such as merchants never used, and people asked questions, and guessed that the boy's master must be some great man. The Duke of Austria heard of it, sent soldiers to take him, and shut him up as a prisoner in one of his castles. Afterward, the duke gave him up for a large sum of money to the Emperor of Germany. All this time Richard's wife

and mother had been in great sorrow and fear, trying to find out what had become of him. It is said that he was found at last by his friend, the minstrel Blondel. A minstrel was a person who made verses and sung them. Many of the nobles and knights in Queen Eleanor's Duchy of Aquitaine



MINSTRELS AND JUGGLERS AT COURT.

were minstrels—and Richard was a very good one himself, and amused himself in his captivity by making verses. This is certainly true; though we cannot answer for it that the pretty story is true, which says that Blondel sung at all the eastle courts in Germany, till he heard his master's voice take up and reply to his song.

The Queens Eleanor and Berengaria raised a ransom—that is, a sum of

money to buy his freedom—though his brother John tried to prevent her. and the King of France did his best to hinder the emperor from releasing him; but the Pope insisted that the brave crusader should be set at liberty: and Richard came home, after a year and a half of captivity. He freely forgave John for all the mischief he had done or tried to do, though he thought so ill of him as to say, "I wish I may forget John's injuries to me as soon as he will forget my pardon of him."

Richard only lived two years after he came back. He was besieging a castle in Aquitaine, where there was some treasure that he thought was unlawfully kept from him, when he was struck in the shoulder by a bolt from a cross-bow, and the surgeons treated it so unskilfully that in a few days he died. The man who had shot the bolt was made prisoner, but the Lionheart's last act was to command that no harm should be done to him. The soldiers, however, in their grief and rage for the king, did put him to death in a cruel manner.

Richard desired to be buried at the feet of his father, in Foutevraud Abbey, where he had once bewailed his undutiful conduct, and now wished his body for ever to lie in penitence. The figures, in stone, of the father, mother, and son, who quarreled so much in life, all lie on one monument now, and with them Richard's youngest sister, Joan, who died nearly at the same time as he died, partly of grief for him.



#### CHAPTER XIII.

JOHN, LACKLAND.

A.D. 1199-1216.

a kind of joke, John, King Henry's youngest son, had been called Lackland, because he had nothing when his brothers each had some great dukedom. The name suited him only too well before the end of his life. The English made him king at once. They always did take a grown-up man for their king, if the last king's son was but a child. Richard had never had any children, but his brother Geoffrey, who was older than John, had left a son named Arthur, who was

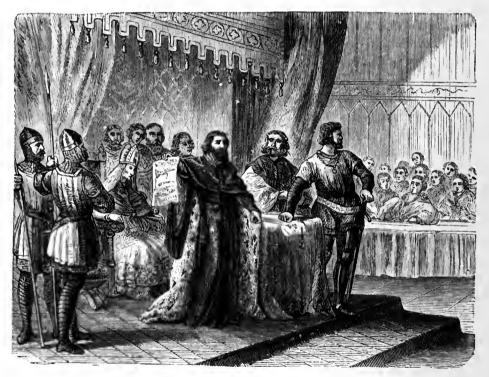
about twelve years old, and who was rightly the Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou. King Philip, who was always glad to vex whoever was king of England, took Arthur under his protection, and pro-

mised to get Normandy out of John's hands. However, John had a meeting with him and persuaded him to desert Arthur, and marry his son Louis to John's own niece, Blanche, who had a chance of being queen of part of Spain. Still Arthur lived at the French King's court, and when he was sixteen years old, Philip helped him to raise an army and go to try his fortune against his uncle. He laid siege to Mirabeau, a town where his grandmother, Queen Eleanor, was living. John, who was then in Normandy, hurried to her rescue, beat Arthur's army, made him prisoner and carried him off, first to Rouen, and then to the strong eastle of Falaise. Nobody quite knows what was done to him there. The governor, Hubert de Burgh, once found him fighting hard, though with no weapon but a stool, to defend himself from some ruffians who had been sent to put out his eyes. Hubert saved him from these men, but shortly after this good man was sent elsewhere by the king, and John came himself to Falaise. Arthur was never seen alive again, and it is believed that John took him out in a boat in the river at night, stabbed him with his own hand, and threw his body into the river. There was, any way, no doubt that John was guilty of his nephew's death, and he was fully known to be one of the most selfish and cruel men who ever lived; and so lazy, that he let Philip take Normandy from him, without stirring a finger to save the grand old dukedom of his forefathers; so that nothing is left of it to England now but the four little islands, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark.

Matters became much worse in England, when he quarreled with the Pope, whose name was Innocent, about who should be archbishop of Cauterbury. The Pope wanted a man named Stephen Langton to be archbishop, but the king swore he should never come into the kingdom. Then the Pope punished the kingdom, by forbidding all church services in all parish churches. This was termed putting the kingdom under an interdict. John was not much distressed by this, though his people were; but when he found that Innocent was stirring up the King of France to come to attack him, he thought it time to make his peace with the Pope. So he not only consented to receive Stephen Langton, but he even knelt down before the Pope's legate, or messenger, and took off his crown, giving it up to the legate, in token that he only held the kingdom from the Pope. It was two or three days before it was given back to him; and the Pope held himself to be lord of England, and made the king and people pay him money whenever he demanded it.

All this time John's eruelty and savageness were making the whole kingdom miserable; and at last the great barons could bear it no longer. They met together and agreed that they would make John swear to govern by the good old English laws that had prevailed before the Normans came. The difficulty was to be sure of what these laws were, for most of the copies

of them had been lost. However, Archbishop Langton and some of the wisest of the barons put together a set of laws—some copied, some recollected, some old, some new—but all such as to give the barons some control of the king, and hinder him from getting savage soldiers together to frighten people into doing whatever he chose to make them. These laws they called Magna Carta, or the great charter; and they all came in armor, and took John by surprise at Windsor. He came to meet them in a meadow named Runnymede, on the bank of the Thames, and there they forced him to sign the charter, for which all Englishmen are grateful to them.



KING JOHN SIGNS MAGNA CARTA.

But he did not mean to keep it! No, not he! He had one of his father's fits of rage when he got back to Windsor Castle—he gnawed the sticks for rage, and swore he was no king. Then he sent for more of the fierce soldiers, who went about in bands ready to be hired, and prepared to take vengeance on the barons. They found themselves not strong enough to make head against him; so they invited Louis, the son of Philip of France and husband of John's niece, to come and be their king. He came, and was received in London, while John and his bands of soldiers were roaming about the eastern counties, wasting and burning everywhere till they came to the Wash—that curious bay between Lincolnshire and Norfolk, where so

many rivers run into the sea. There is a safe way across the sands in this bay when the tide is low, but when it is coming in and meets the rivers, the waters rise suddenly into a flood. So it happened to King John; he did get out himself, but all the carts with his goods and treasures were lost, and many of his men. He was full of rage and grief, but he went on to the abbey where he meant to sleep. He supped on peaches and new ale, and soon after became very ill. He died in a few days, a miserable, disgraced man, with half his people fighting against him and London in the hands of his worst enemy.



#### CHAPTER XIV.

HENRY III., OF WINCHESTER.

A.D. 1216-1272.

NG John left two little sons, Henry and Richard, nine and seven years old, and all the English barons felt that they would rather have Henry as their king than the French Louis, whom they had only called in because John was such a wretch. So when little Henry had been crowned at Gloucester, with his mother's bracelet, swearing to rule according to Magna Carta, and good Hubert de Burgh undertook to govern for him, one baron after another came back to him. Louis was beaten in a battle at Lincoln; and when his wife

sent him more troops, Hubert de Burgh got ships together and sunk many vessels, and drove the others back in the Straits of Dover; so that Louis was forced to go home and leave England in peace.

Henry must have been too young to understand about Magna Carta when he swore to it, but it was the trouble of all his long reign to get him to observe it. It was not that he was wicked like his father—for he was very religious and kind-hearted—but he was too good-natured, and never could say No to anybody. Bad advisers got about him when he grew up, and persuaded him to let them take good Hubert de Burgh and imprison him. When they seized him, they took him to a blacksmith to have chains put on his feet, but the smith said he would never forge chains for the man who had saved his country from the French. He was afterward set free, and died in peace and honor.

Henry was a builder of beautiful churches. Westminster Abbey, as it is now, was one. And he was so charitable to the poor that, when he had

his children weighed, he gave their weight in gold and silver in alms. But he gave to every one who asked, and so always wanted money; and sometimes his men could get nothing for the king and queen to eat, but by going and taking sheep and poultry from the poor farmers around; so that things were nearly as bad as under William Rufus—because the king was so foolishly good-natured. The Pope was always sending for money, too: and the king tried to raise it in ways that, according to Magna Carta, he had sworn not to do. His foreign friends told him that if he minded Magna Carta he would be a poor creature—not like a king, who might do all he pleased; and whenever he listened to them he broke the laws of Magna Carta. Then, when his barons complained and frightened him, he swore again to keep them; so that nobody could trust him, and his weakness was almost as bad for the kingdom as John's wickedness. When they could bear it no longer, the barons all met him at the council which was called the Parliament, from a French word meaning talk. This time they came in armor, bringing all their fighting men, and declared that he had broken his word so often that they should appoint some of their own number to watch him, and hinder his doing anything against the laws he had sworn to observe, or from getting money from the people without their consent. He was very angry; but he was in their power, and had to submit to swear that so it should be; and Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who had married his sister, was appointed among the lords who were to keep watch over him. Henry could not bear this; he felt himself to be less than ever a king, and tried to break loose. He had never cared for his promises; but his brave son Edward, who was now grown up, cared a great deal: and they put the question to Louis, King of France, whether the king was bound by the oath he had made to be under Montfort and his council. This Louis was son to the one who had been driven back by Hubert de Burgh. was one of the best men and kings that ever lived, and he tried to judge rightly; but he scarcely thought how much provocation Henry had given, when he said that subjects had no right to frighten their king, and so that Henry and Edward were not obliged to keep the oath.

Thereupon they got an army together, and so did Simon de Montfort and the barons; and they met at a place called Lewes, in Sussex. Edward got the advantage at first, and galloped away, driving his enemies before him; but when he turned round and came back, he found that Simon de Montfort had beaten the rest of the army, and made his father and uncle Richard prisoners. Indeed, the barons threatened to cut off Richard's head if Edward went on fighting with them; and to save his uncle's life he, too,

gave himself up to them.

Simon de Montfort now governed all the kingdom. He still called Henry king, but did not let him do anything, and watched him closely that he might not get away; and Edward was kept a prisoner—first in one castle, then in another. Simon was a good and high-minded man himself, who only wanted to do what was best for every one; but he had a family of proud and overbearing sons, who treated all who came in their way so ill, that most of the barons quarreled with them. One of these barons sent Edward a beautiful horse; and one day when he was riding out from Hereford Castle with his keepers, he proposed to them to ride races, while he was to look on and decide which was the swiftest. Thus they all tired out their horses, and as soon as he saw that they could hardly get them along, Edward spurred his own fresh horse, and galloped off to meet the friends



CRUSADERS IN BATTLE.

who were waiting for him. All who were discontented with the Montforts joined him, and he soon had a large army. He marched against Montfort, and met him at Evesham. The poor old king was in Montfort's army, and in the battle was thrown down, and would have been killed if he had not called out—"Save me, save me, I am Henry of Winchester." His son heard the eall, and, rushing to his side, carried him to a place of safety. His army was much the strongest, and Montfort had known from the first that there was no hope for him. "God have mercy on our souls, for our bodies are Sir Edward's," he had said: and he died bravely on the field of battle.

Edward brought his father back to reign in all honor, but he took the whole management of the kingdom, and soon set things in order again—taking care that Magna Carta should be properly observed. When everything was peaceful at home, he set out upon a Crusade with the good King of France, and while he was gone his father died, after a reign of fifty-six years. There were only three English kings who reigned more than fifty years, and these are easy to remember, as each was the third of his name—Henry III., Edward III., and George III. In the reign of Henry III. the custom of having Parliaments was established, and the king was prevented from getting money from the people unless the Parliament granted it. The Parliament has, ever since, been made up of great lords, who are born to it; and, besides them, of men chosen by the people in the counties and towns, to speak and decide for them. The clergy have a meeting of their own called Convocation; and these three—Clergy, Lords, and Commons—are called the Three Estates of the Reahn.



# CHAPTER XV.

EDWARD I., LONGSHANKS.

A.D. 1272-1307.

HE son of Henry III. returned from the Holy Land to be one of the noblest, best, and wisest kings. Edward I.—called Longshauks in a kind of joke, because he was the tallest man in the Court—was very grand-looking and handsome; and could leap, run, ride, and fight in his heavy armor better than any one else. He was brave, just, and affectionate; and his sweet wife, Eleanor of Castille, was warmly loved by him and all the nation. He built as many churches and was as charitable as his father, but he was much more careful only to

make good men bishops, and he allowed no wasting or idling. He faithfully obeyed Magna Carta, and made every one else obey the law—indeed many good laws and customs have begun from his time. Order was the great thing he cared for, and under him the English grew prosperous and happy, when nobody was allowed to rob them.

The Welsh were, however, terrible robbers. It must be remembered that they are the remains of the old Britons, who used to have all Britain. They had never left off thinking they had a right to it, and coming down

out of their mountains to burn the houses and steal the cattle of the Saxons. as they still called the English. Edward tried to make friends with their princes-Llewellyn and David-and to make them keep their people in order. He gave David lands in England, and let Llewellyn marry his cousin. Eleanor de Montfort. But they broke their promises shamefully, and did such savage things to the English on their borders that he was forced to put a stop to it, and went to war. David was made prisoner, and put to death as a traitor; and Llewellyn was met by some soldiers near the bridge of Builth and killed, without their knowing who he was. Edward had, in the meantime, conquered most of the country; and he told the Welsh chiefs that, if they would come and meet him at Caernaryon Castle, he would give them a prince who had been born in their country—had never spoken a word of any language but theirs. They all came, and the king came down to them with his own little baby son in his arms, who had lately been born in Caernaryon Castle, and, of course, had never spoken any language at all. The Welsh were obliged to accept him; and he had a Welsh nurse, that the first words he spoke might be Welsh. They thought he would have been altogether theirs, as he then had an elder brother; but in a year or two the oldest boy died; and ever since that time, the eldest son of the King of England has always been Prince of Wales.

There was a plan for the little Prince Edward of Caernarvon being married to a little girl, who was grand-daughter to the King of Scotland, and would be Queen of Scotland herself—and this would have led to the whole island being under one king—but, unfortunately, the little maiden died. It was so hard to decide who ought to reign, out of all her eousins, that they asked King Edward to choose among them—since every one knew that a great piece of Scotland belonged to him as over-lord, just as his own dukedom of Aquitaine belonged to the King of France over him; and the Kings of Scotland always used to pay homage to those of England for it.

Edward chose John Balliol, the one who had the best right; but he made him understand that, as over-lord, he meant to see that as good order was kept in Scotland as in England. Now, the English kings had never meddled with Scottish affairs before, and the Scots were furious at finding that he did so. They said it was insulting them and their king: and poor Balliol did not know what to do among them, but let them defy Edward in his name. This brought Edward and his army to Scotland. The strong places were taken and filled with English soldiers, and Balliol was made prisoner, adjudged to have rebelled against his lord and forfeited his kingdom, and was sent away to France.

Edward thought it would be much better for the whole country to join Scotland to. England, and rule it himself. And so, no doubt, it would have been; but many of the Scots were not willing,—and in spite of all the care

he could take, the soldiers who guarded his castles often behaved shamefully to the people round them. One gentleman, named William Wallace, whose home had been broken up by some soldiers, fled to the woods and hills, and drew so many Scots round him that he had quite an army. There was a great fight at the Bridge of Stirling; the English governors were beaten, and Wallace led his men over the Border into Northumberland, where they plundered and burnt wherever they went, in revenge for what had been done in Scotland.

Edward gathered his forces and came to Scotland. The army that Wallace had drawn together could not stand before him, but was defeated at Falkirk, and Wallace had to take to the woods. Edward promised pardon to all who would submit,—and almost all did; but Wallace still lurked in the hills, till one of his own countrymen betrayed him to the English, when

he was sent to London, and put to death.

All seemed quieted, and English garrisons—that is, guarding soldiers—were in all the Scottish towns and castles, when, suddenly, Robert Bruce, one of the half English, half Scottish nobles between whom Edward had judged, ran away from the English court, with his horse's shoes put on backwards. The next thing that was heard of him was, that he had quarreled with one of his cousins in the church at Dumfries, and stabbed him to the heart, and then had gone to Scone and had been crowned King of Scotland.

Edward was bitterly angry now. He sent on an army to deal unsparingly with the rising, and set out to follow with his son, now grown to man's estate. Crueller things than he had ever allowed before were done to the places where Robert Bruce had been acknowledged as king, and his friends were hung as traitors wherever they were found; but Bruce himself could not be caught. He was living a wild life among the lakes and hills; and Edward, who was an old man now, had been taken so ill at Carlisle, that he could not come on to keep his own strict rule among his men. All the winter he lay sick there; and in the spring he heard that Bruce, whom he thought quite crushed, had suddenly burst upon the English, defeated them, and was gathering strength every day.

Edward put on his armor and set out for Scotland; but at Burgh-on-the-Sands his illness came on again, and he died there, at seventy years old.

He was buried in Westminster Abbey, under a great block of stone, and the inscription on it only says, "Edward I., 1308—The Hammer of the Scots—Keep Treaties." His good wife, Queen Eleanor, had died many years before him, and was also buried at Westminster. All the way from Grantham, in Lincolnshire—where she died—to London, Edward set up a beautiful stone cross wherever her body rested for the night—fifteen of them—but only three are left now.

#### CHAPTER XVI.

EDWARD II., OF CAERNARVON.

A.D. 1307-1327.

NLIKE his father in everything was the young Edward, who was just come to manhood when he became king. Nay, he never did come to manhood in mind, for he was as silly and easily led as his grandfather, Henry III., had been. He had a friend—a gay, handsome, thoughtless, careless young mannamed Piers Gaveston, who had often led him into mischief. His father had banished this dangerous companion, and forbidden, under pain of his heaviest displeasure, the two young men from ever meeting again; but the moment the old king was

dead, Edward turned back from Scotland, where he was so much wanted, and sent for Piers Gaveston again. At the same time his bride arrived—Isabel. daughter to the King of France, a beautiful girl—and there was a splendid wedding feast; but the king and Gaveston were both so vain and conceited, that they cared more about their own beauty and fine dress than the young queen's, and she found herself quite neglected. The nobles, too, were angered at the airs that Gaveston gave himself; he not only dressed splendidly, had a huge train of servants, and managed the king as he pleased, but he was very insolent to them, and gave them nick-names. He called the king's cousin, the Earl of Lancaster, "the old hog;" the Earl of Pembroke, "Joseph, the Jew;" and the Earl of Warwick, "the black dog." Meantime, the king and he were wasting the treasury, and doing harm of all kinds, till the barons gathered together and forced the king to send his favorite into banish-Gaveston went, but he soon came back again and joined the king, who was at last setting out for Scotland. The nobles, however, would not endure his return. They seized him, brought him to Warwick Castle, and there held a kind of Court, which could hardly be called of Justice, for they had no right at all to sentence him. He spoke them fair now, and begged hard for his life; but they could not forget the names he had called them, and he was beheaded on Blacklow Hill.

Edward was full of grief and anger for the cruel death of his friend; but he was forced to keep it out of sight, for all the barons were coming round him for the Scottish war. While he had been wasting his time, Robert Bruce had obtained every strong place in Scotland, except Stirling

Castle, and there the English governor had promised to yield, if succor did not come from England within a year and a day.

The year was almost over when Edward came into Scotland with a fine army of English, Welsh, and Gascons from Aquitaine; but Robert Bruce was a great and able general, and Edward was no general at all; so when the armies met at Bannockburn, under the walls of Stirling, the English were worse beaten than ever they had been anywhere else, except at Hastings. Edward was obliged to flee away to England, and though Bruce was never



A SCOTTISH CHIEF.

owned by the English to be King of Scotland, there he really reigned, having driven every Englishman away, and taken all the towns and castles. Indeed, the English had grown so much afraid of the Scots, that a hundred would flee at sight of two.

The king comforted himself with a new friend—Hugh le Despencer—who, with his old father, had his own way, just like Gaveston. Again the barons rose, and required that they should be banished. They went, but the Earl of Lancaster carried his turbulence too far, and, when he heard that the father had come back, raised an army, and was even found to have asked Robert Bruce to help him against his own king. This made the other barons so angry that they joined the king against him, and he was made prisoner and put

to death for making war on the king, and making friends with the enemies of the country.

Edward had his Le Despencers back again, and very discontented the sight made the whole country—and especially the queen, whom he had always neglected, though she now had four children. He had never tried to gain her love, and she hated him more and more. There was some danger of a quarrel with her brother, the King of France, and she offered to go with her son Edward, now about fourteen, and settle it. But this was only an excuse. She went about to the princes abroad, telling them how ill she was used by her husband, and asking for help. A good many knights believed and pitied her, and came with her to England to help. All the England

lish who hated the Le Despencers joined her, and she led the young prince against his father. Edward and his friends were hunted across into Wales; but they were tracked out one by one, and the Despencers were put to a cruel death, though Edward gave himself up in hopes of saving them.

The queen and her friends made him own that he did not deserve to reign, and would give up the crown to his son. Then they kept him in prison, taking him from one castle to another, in great misery. The rude soldiers of his guard mocked him and crowned him with hay, and gave him dirty ditch water to shave with; and when they found he was too strong and healthy to die only of bad food and damp lodging, they murdered him one night in Berkeley Castle. He lies buried in Gloucester Cathedral, not far from that other foolish and unfortunate prince, Robert of Normandy. He had reigned twenty years, and was dethroned in 1327.

The queen then wanted to get rid of Edmund, Earl of Kent, the poor king's youngest brother. So a report was spread that Edward was alive, and Edmund was allowed to peep into a dark prison room, where he saw a man who he thought was his brother. He tried to stir up friends to set the king free; but this was called rebelling, and he was taken and beheaded at Winchester by a criminal condemned to die, for it was such a wicked sentence that nobody else could be found to carry it out.



# CHAPTER XVII.

EDWARD III.

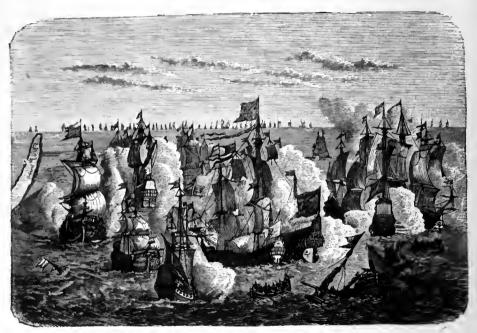
A.D. 1327-1377.

OR about three years, the cruel Queen Isabel and her friends managed all the country; but as soon as her son—Edward III., who had been crowned instead of his father—understood how wicked she had been, and was strong enough to deal with her party, he made them prisoners, put the worst of them to death, and kept the queen shut up in a castle as long as she lived. He had a very good queen of his own, named Philippa, who brought cloth-workers over from her own country, Hainault (now part of Belgium), to teach the

English their trade, and thus began to render England the chief country in the world for wool and cloth.

Queen Isabel, Edward's mother, had, remember, been daughter of the

King of France. All her three brothers died without leaving a son, and their cousin, whose name was Philip, began to reign in their stead. Edward, however, fancied that the crown of France properly belonged to him, in right of his mother; but he did not stir about it at once, and, perhaps, never would have done so at all, but for two things. One was, that the King of France, Philip VI., had been so foolish as to fancy that one of his lords, named Robert of Artois, had been bewitching him—by sticking pins into a wax figure and roasting it before a fire. So this Robert was driven out of France, and, coming to England, stirred Edward up to go and overthrow Philip. The other was, that the English barons had grown so restless and



THE GREAT SEA-FIGHT OFF SLUYS.

troublesome, that they would not stay peacefully at home and mind their own estates;—but if they had not wars abroad, they always gave the king trouble at home; and Edward liked better that they should fight for him than against him. So he called himself King of France and England, and began a war which lasted—with short spaces of quiet—for full one hundred years, and only ended in the time of the great-grandchildren of the men who entered upon it. There was one great sea-fight off Sluys, when the king sat in his ship, in a black velvet dress, and gained a great victory; but it was a good while before there was any great battle by land—so long, that the king's eldest son, Edward Prince of Wales, was sixteen years old. He is generally called the Black Prince—no one quite knows why, for his hair, like that of all these old kings of ours, was quite light and his eyes were





" Test by John Sordien . Main

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olne. He was such a spirited young softher, that when the beet the acc nuder King Philip came in it at of the English one, near the illay of Creev, King Edward said he should have the honor of the day, and s under a windmill on a hill watching the fight, while the prince led the him lish army. He gained a very great victory, and in the evening come in . knelt before his father, saying the praise was not his two but the kings. who had ordered all so wisely. Afterward, vial Philip had fled away, Edward besieged Calais, the town just opposite to In. et. The inhabitant were very brave, and held out for a long time; and war's Edward was absent, the Scots under David, the wan of Rober Brack come over the Border, and began to burn and plunder in Northunder (and. However. Philippa could be brave in time of need. She did not some to her bushand but called an army together, and the Scots were so well by ten at Neville's Cross, that their king, David himself, was obliged to give 'deself up to no Luglish squire. The man would not let the queen have his originar, but rode day and night to Dover, and then crossed to Chinis to tell the king, who bade him put King David into Queen Philippa's ke ging. She can a herself to the camp, just as the brave men of Cabais had been stars days, and Edward had said he would only consent not to but the top a dam a first of the chief townsmen would bring him the keys of the gate ku white, the sackcloth on, and halters round their cooks, ready to be hung. Que a Philippa, wept when she saw them, and begged that they might be spera. and when the king granted them to her she had then hed away, and geeach a good dinner and a fresh suit of locine the long, however, touch all the French people out if thebas. I like to the Inglish, and mained quite an English town for more than it is not a strongs

King Philip VI. of Francis at J. L. L. A. L. J. School ing . still the war went on. The Black France with a remark to have a place called Poitiers, and the first state of the state of the total John and one of his sonia year made a made one when it is a see the to the tent where the Black brance was treat he was in the range for the table before him, and a since or them at if were let here. here gue stend of his prisoners. He aid all he can deep ore cit a, tivit, the win to them; and when he brought them to a your, in your Johnwhite horse to ride, and only rode a small point by uself a sich . were two kings prisoners in the Tower of Land as a second a treated as if they were visitors and friends. John was assured to provided he would pay a ransom by degree a left will get to wether; and, in the meantime, his two obligations were to "This in his stead. But they would not alm at adais of \$ \$ of M not obtain the sum for his runsom, so, with a te in che a key reput back to his prison in Bughard again the ord soor - -



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blue. He was such a spirited young soldier, that when the French army under King Philip came in sight of the English one, near the village of Crecy, King Edward said he should have the honor of the day, and stood under a windmill on a hill watching the fight, while the prince led the English army. He gained a very great victory, and in the evening came and knelt before his father, saying the praise was not his own but the king's, who had ordered all so wisely. Afterward, while Philip had fled away, Edward besieged Calais, the town just opposite to Dover. The inhabitants were very brave, and held out for a long time; and while Edward was absent, the Scots under David, the son of Robert Bruce, came over the Border, and began to burn and plunder in Northumberland. However, Philippa could be brave in time of need. She did not send for her husband, but called an army together, and the Scots were so well beaten at Neville's Cross, that their king, David himself, was obliged to give himself up to an English squire. The man would not let the queen have his prisoner, but rode day and night to Dover, and then crossed to Calais to tell the king, who bade him put King David into Queen Philippa's keeping. She came herself to the camp, just as the brave men of Calais had been starved out; and Edward had said he would only consent not to burn the town down, if six of the chief townsmen would bring him the keys of the gates, kneeling, with sackcloth on, and halters round their necks, ready to be hung. Queen Philippa wept when she saw them, and begged that they might be spared; and when the king granted them to her she had them led away, and gave each a good dinner and a fresh suit of clothes. The king, however, turned all the French people out of Calais, and filled it with English, and it remained quite an English town for more than two hundred years.

King Philip VI. of France died, and his son John became king, while still the war went on. The Black Prince and John had a terrible battle at a place called Poitiers, and the English gained another great victory. King John and one of his sons were made prisoners; but when they were brought to the tent where the Black Prince was to sup, he made them sit down at the table before him, and waited on them as if they had been his guests instead of his prisoners. He did all he could to prevent captivity being a pain to them; and when he brought them to London, he gave John a tall white horse to ride, and only rode a small pony himself by his side. There were two kings prisoners in the Tower of London at once, and they were treated as if they were visitors and friends. John was allowed to go home, provided he would pay a ransom by degrees, as he could get the money together; and, in the meantime, his two eldest sons were to be kept at Calais in his stead. But they would not stay at Calais, and King John could not obtain the sum for his ransom; so, rather than cheat King Edward, he went back to his prison in England again. He died soon after; and his son Charles was a cleverer and wiser man, who knew it was better not to

fight battles with the English, but made a truce, or short peace.

Prince Edward governed that part of the south of France that belonged to his father; but he went on a foolish expedition into Spain, to help a very bad king whom his subjects had driven out, and there caught an illness from which he never quite recovered. While he was ill, King Charles began the war again; and, though there was no battle, he tormented the English, and took the castles and towns they held. The Black Prince tried to fight, but he was too weak and ill to do much, and was obliged to go home, and leave the government to his brother John, Duke of Laneaster. He lived about six years after he came home, and then died, to the great sorrow of every His father, King Edward, was now too old and feeble to attend to the affairs of the country. Queen Philippa was dead, too, and as no one took proper care of the poor old king, he fell into the hands of bad servants, who made themselves rich and neglected him. When, at length, he lay dying, they stole the ring off his finger before he had breathed his last, and left him all alone, with the doors open, till a priest came by, and stayed and prayed by him till his last moment. He had reigned exactly fifty years. It is as well to learn and remember the names of his sons, as more will be related about some of them. They were Edward, Lionel, John, Edmund, and Thomas. Edward was Prince of Wales; Lionel, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Laneaster; Edmund, Duke of York; and Thomas, Duke of Gloucester. Edward and Lionel both died before their father. Edward had left a son named Richard; Lionel had left a daughter named Philippa.



## CHAPTER XVIII.

RICHARD II.

A.D. 1377-1399.

HESE were not very good times in England. The new king, Richard, was only eleven years old, and his three uncles did not care much for his good or the good of the nation. There was not much fighting going on in France, but for the little there was, a great deal of money was wanting, and the great lords were apt to be very hard upon the poor people on their estates. They would not let them be taught to read; and if a poor man who belonged to an estate went away to a town, his lord could have him brought back to his old home. Any

tax, too, fell more heavily on the poor than the rich. One tax, especially, called the poll-tax, which was made when Richard was sixteen, vexed them greatly. Every one above fifteen years old had to pay fourpence, and the collectors were often very rude and insolent. A man named Wat Tyler, in Kent, was so angry with a rude collector as to strike him dead. All the villagers came together with sticks, and scythes, and flails; and Wat Tyler told them they would all go to London, and tell the king how his poor commons were treated. More people and more joined them on the way, and an immense multitude of wild-looking men came pouring into London, where the Lord Mayor and Aldermen were taken by surprise, and could do nothing to stop them. They did not do much harm then; they lay on the grass all night round the Tower, and said they wanted to speak to the king. In the morning he came down to his barge, and meant to have spoken to them; but his people, seeing such a host of wild men, took fright, and carried him back again. He went out again the next day on horseback; but while he was speaking to some of them, the worst of them broke into the Tower, where they seized Archbishop Simon of Canterbury, and fancying he was one of the king's bad advisers, they cut off his head. Richard had to sleep in the house called the Royal Wardrobe that night, but he went out again on horseback among the mob, and began trying to understand what they wanted. Wat Tyler, while talking, grew violent, forgot to whom he was speaking, and laid his hand on the king's bridle, as if to threaten or take him prisoner. Upon this, the Lord Mayor, with his mace—the large crowned staff that is carried before him-dealt the man such a blow that he

fell from his horse, and an attendant thrust him through with a sword. The people wavered, and seemed not to know what to do: and the young king, with great readiness, rode forward and said—"Good fellows, have ye lost your leader? This fellow was but a traitor; I am your king, and will be your captain and guide." Then he rode at their head out into the fields, and the gentlemen, who had mustered their men by this time, were able to get between them and the city. The people of each county were desired to state their grievances; the king engaged to do what he could for them, and they went home.

Richard seems to have really wished to take away some of the laws that



DEATH OF WAT TYLER.

were so hard upon them, but his lords would not let him, and he had as yet very little power—being only a boy—and by the time he grew up his head was full of vanity and folly. He was very handsome, and he cared more for fine clothes and amusements than for business; and his youngest uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, did all he could to keep him back, and hinder him from taking his affairs into his own hands. Not till he was twenty-four did Richard begin to govern for himself; and then the Duke of Gloucester was always grumbling and setting the people to grumble, because the king chose to have peace with France. Duke Thomas used to lament over the glories

of the battles of Edward III., and tell the people they had taxes to pay to keep the king in ermine robes, and rings, and jewels, and to let him give feasts and tilting matches—when the knights, in beautiful, gorgeous armor, rode against one another in sham fight, and the king and ladies looked on

and gave the prize.

Now, Richard knew very well that all this did not cost half so much as his grandfather's wars, and he said it did not signify to the people what he wore, or how he amused himself, as long as he did not tax them and take their lambs and sheaves to pay for it. But the people would not believe him, and Gloucester was always stirring them up against him, and interfering with him in council. At last, Richard went as if on a visit to his uncle at Pleshy Castle, and there, in his own presence, caused him to be seized and sent off to Calais. In a few days' time Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, was dead; and to this day nobody knows whether his grief and rage brought on a fit, or if he was put to death. It is certain, at least, that Richard's other two uncles do not seem to have treated the king as if he had been to blame. The elder of these uncles, the Duke of Lancaster, was called John of Gaunt—because he had been born at Ghent, a town in Flanders. He was becoming an old man, and only tried to help the king and keep things quiet; but Henry, his eldest son, was a fine high-spirited young man -a favorite with everybody, and was always putting himself forward-and the king was very much afraid of him.

One day, when Parliament met, the king stood up, and commanded Henry of Lancaster to tell all those present what the Duke of Norfolk had said when they were riding together. Henry gave in a written paper, saying that the duke had told him that they should all be ruined, like the Duke of Gloueester, and that the king would find some way to destroy them. Norfolk angrily sprang up, and declared he had said no such thing. In those days, when no one could tell which spoke truth, the two parties often would offer to fight, and it was believed that God would show the right, by giving the victory to the sincere one. So Henry and Norfolk were to fight; but just as they were mounted on their horses, with their lances in their hands, the king threw down his staff before them, stopped the combat, and sentenced Norfolk to be banished from England for life, and Henry for ten

years.

Not long after Henry had gone, his old father—John of Gaunt—died, and the king kept all his great dukedom of Lancaster. Henry would not bear this, and knew that many people at home thought it very unfair; so he came to England, and as soon as he landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, people flocked to him so eagerly, that he began to think he could do more than make himself Duke of Lancaster. King Richard was in Ireland, where his cousin, the governor—Roger Mortimer—had been killed by the wild

Irish. He came home in haste on hearing of Henry's arrival, but everybody turned against him: and the Earl of Northumberland, whom he had chiefly trusted, made him prisoner and carried him to Henry. He was taken to London, and there set before Parliament, to confess that he had ruled so ill that he was unworthy to reign, and gave up the crown to his dear cousin Henry of Lancaster, in the year 1399. Then he was sent away to Pontefract Castle, and what happened to him there nobody knows, but he never came out of it alive.



## CHAPTER XIX.

HENRY IV.

A.D. 1399-1413.

HE English people had often chosen their king out of the Royal Family in old times, but from John to Richard II. he had always been the son and heir of the last king. Now, though poor Richard had no child, Henry of Lancaster was not the next of kin to him, for Lionel, Duke of Clarence, had come between the Black Prince and John of Gaunt; and his great-grandson, Edmund Mortimer, was thought by many to have a better right to be king than Henry. Besides, people did not know whether Richard was alive, and they thought

him hardly used, and wanted to set him free. So Henry had a very uneasy time. Every one had been fond of him when he was a bright, friendly, free-spoken noble, and he had thought that he would be a good king and much loved; but he had gained the crown in an evil way, and it never gave him any peace or joy. The Welsh, who always had loved Richard, took up arms for him, and the Earl of Northumberland, who had betrayed Richard, expected a great deal too much from Henry. The earl had a brave son—Henry Percy—who was so fiery and eager that he was commonly called Hotspur. He was set to fight with the Welsh: and with the king's son, Henry, Prince of Wales—a brave boy of fifteen or sixteen—under his charge, to teach him the art of war; and they used to climb the mountains and sleep in tents together as good friends.

But the Scots made an attack on England. Henry Percy went north to fight with them, and beat them in a great battle, making many prisoners. The king sent to ask to have the prisoners sent to London, and this made

the proud Percy so angry that he gave up the cause of King Henry, and went off to Wales, taking his prisoners with him; and there—being by this time nearly sure that poor Richard must be dead—he joined the Welsh in choosing, as the only right king of England, young Edmund Mortimer. Henry IV. and his sons gathered an army easily—for the Welsh were so savage and cruel, that the English were sure to fight against them if they broke into England. The battle was fought near Shrewsbury. It was a very fierce one, and in it Hotspur was killed, the Welsh put to flight, and the Prince of Wales fought so well, that every one saw he was likely to be a brave, warlike king, like Edward I., or Edward III.

The troubles were not over, however, for the Earl of Northumberland himself, and Archbishop Scrope of York, took up arms against the king; but they were put down without a battle. The earl fled and hid himself, but the archbishop was taken and beheaded—the first bishop whom a king of England had ever put to death. The Welsh went on plundering and doing harm, and Prince Henry had to be constantly on the watch against them; and, in fact, there never was a reign so full of plots and conspiracies. The king never knew whom to trust: one fifend after another turned against him, and he became soured and wretched; he was worn out with disappointment and guarding against every one, and at last he grew even suspicious of his brave son Henry, because he was so bright and bold, and was so much loved. The prince was ordered home from Wales, and obliged to live at Windsor, with nothing to do, while his younger brothers were put before him and trusted by their father-one of them even sent to command the army in France. But happily the four brothers—Henry, Thomas, John, and Humfrey-all loved each other so well that nothing could make them jealous or at enmity with one another. At Windsor, too, the king kept young Edmund Mortimer-whom the Welsh had tried to make king, -and also the young Prince of Scotland, whom an English ship had caught as he was sailing for France to be educated. It was very dishonorable of the king to have taken him; but he was brought up with the young English princes, and they all led a happy life together.

There are stories told of Henry—Prince Hal, as he was called—leading a wild, merry life, as a sort of madeap; playing at being a robber, and breaking into the wagons that were bringing treasure for his father, and then giving the money back again. Also, there is a story that, when one of his friends was taken before the Lord Chief Justice, he went and ordered him to be released, and that when the justice refused he drew his sword, upon which the justice sent him to prison; and he went quietly, knowing it was right. The king is said to have declared himself happy to have a judge who maintained the law so well, and a son who would submit to it; but there does not seem to be good reason for believing the story; and it seems

clear that young Henry, if he was full of fun and frolic, took care never to

do anything really wrong.

The king was an old man before his time. He was always ill, and often had fits, and one of these came on when he was in Westminster Abbey. He was taken to the room called the Jerusalem chamber, and Henry watched him there. Another of the stories is that the king lay as if he were dead, and the prince took the crown that was by his side and carried it away. When the king revived, Henry brought it back, with many excuses. "Ah, fair



PRINCE HENRY OFFERS HIS LIFE WHEN HIS FATHER DOUBTS HIS LOYALTY UPON RETURNING THE CROWN.

son," said the king, "what right have you to crown? you know your father had none."

"Sir," said Henry, "with your sword you took it, and with my sword I will keep it."

"May God have mercy on my soul," said the king.

We cannot be quite certain about the truth of this conversation, for many people will write down stories they have heard, without making sure of them. One thing we are certain of which Henry told his son, which seems less like repentance. It was that, unless he made war in France, his lords would never let him be quiet. on his throne in England; and this young Henry was: quite ready to believe. There had never been a real peace

between France and England since Edward III. had begun the war—only truces, which are short rests in the middle of a great war—and the English were eager to begin again; for people seldom thought then of the misery that comes of a great war, but only of the honor and glory that were to be gained, of making prisoners and getting ransoms from them.

So Henry IV. died, after having made his own life very miserable by taking the crown unjustly, and, as you will see, leaving a great deal of harm. still to come to the whole country, as well as to France.

He died in the year 1413. His family is called the House of Lancaster, because his father had been Duke of Lancaster. You will be amused to hear that Richard Whittington really lived in his time. We cannot answer for his cat, but he was really Lord Mayor of London, and supplied the wardrobe of King Henry's daughter, when she married the King of Denmark.



# CHAPTER XX.

HENRY V., OF MONMOUTH.

A.D. 1413-1423.

HE young King Henry was full of high, good thoughts. He was most devout in going to church, tried to make good bishops, gave freely to the poor, and was so kindly, and hearty, and merry in all his words and ways, that every one loved him. Still, he thought it was his duty to go and make war in France. He had been taught to believe the kingdom belonged to him, and it was in so wretched a state that he thought he could do it good. The poor king, Charles VI., was mad, and had a wicked wife besides; and his sons, and

uncles, and cousins were always fighting, till the streets of Paris often ran red with blood, and the whole country was miserable. Henry hoped to set all in order for them, and, gathering an army together, crossed to Normandy. He called on the people to own him as their true king, and never let any harm be done to them, for he hung any soldier who was caught stealing, or misusing any one. He took the town of Harfleur, on the coast of Normandy, but not till after a long siege, when his camp was in so wet a place that there was much illness among his men. The store of food was nearly used up, and he was obliged to march his troops across to Calais, which belonged to England, to get some more. But on the way the French army came up to meet him—a very grand, splendid-looking army, commanded by the king's eldest son, the dauphin. Just as the English kings' eldest son was always Prince of Wales, the French kings' eldest son was always called Dauphin of Vienne, because Vienne, the county that belonged to him, had a dolphin on its shield. The French army was very large—quite twice the number of the English-but, though Henry's men were weary and halfstarved, and many of them sick, they were not afraid, but believed their king when he told them that there were enough Frenchmen to kill, enough

to run away, and enough to make prisoners. At night, however, the English had solemn prayers, and made themselves ready, and the king walked from tent to tent to see that each man was in his place; while, on the other hand, the French were feasting and revelling, and settling what they would do to the English when they had made them prisoners. They were close to a little village which the English called Agincourt, and though that is not quite its right name, the battle has been called after it ever since. The French, owing to the quarrelsome state of the country, had no order or obedience among them. Nobody would obey any other; and when their own archers were in the way, the horsemen began cutting them down as if they were the enemy. Some fought bravely, but it was of little use; and by night all the French were routed, and King Henry's banner waving in victory over the field. He went back to England in great glory, and all the aldermen of London came out to meet him in red gowns and gold chains, and among them was Sir Richard Whittington, the great silk mercer.

Henry was so modest that he would not allow the helmet he had worn at Agincourt, all knocked about with terrible blows, to be carried before him when he rode into London, and he went straight to church, to give thanks to God for his victory. He soon went back to France, and went on conquering it till the queen came to an agreement with him that he should marry her daughter Catherine, and that, though poor, crazy Charles VI. should reign to the end of his life, when he died Henry and Catherine should be king and queen of France. So Henry and Catherine were married, and he took her home to England with great joy and pomp, leaving his brother Thomas, Duke of Clarence, to take care of his army in France. For, of course, though the queen had made this treaty for her mad husband, most brave, honest Frenchmen could not but feel it a wicked and unfair thing to give the kingdom away from her son, the Dauphin Charles. He was not a good man, and had consented to the murder of his cousin, the Duke of Burgundy, and this had turned some against him; but still he was badly treated, and the bravest Frenchmen could not bear to see their country given up to the English. So, though he took no trouble to fight for himself, they fought for him, and got some Scots to help them; and by and by news

came to Henry that his army had been beaten and his brother killed.

He came back again in haste to France, and his presence made everything go well again; but all the winter he was besieging the town of Meaux, where there was a very cruel robber, who made all the roads to Paris unsafe, and by the time he had taken it his health was much injured. His queen-came to him, and they kept a very grand court at Paris, at Whitsuntide; but soon after, when Henry set out to join his army, he found himself so ill and weak that he was obliged to turn back to the Castle of Vincennes, where he grew much worse. He called for all his friends, and

begged them to be faithful to his little baby son, whom he had never even seen; and he spoke especially to his brother John, Duke of Bedford, to whom he left the charge of all he had gained. He had tried to be a good man, and though his attack on France was really wrong, and caused great misery, he had meant to do right. So he was not afraid to face death, and he died when only thirty-four years old, while he was listening to the fifty-first Psalm. Everybody grieved for him—even the French—and nobody had ever been so good and dutiful to poor old King Charles, who sat in a corner lamenting for his good son Henry, and wasting away till he died, only three weeks later, so that he was buried the same day, at St. Denys Abbey, near Paris, as Henry was buried at Westminster Abbey, near London.

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#### CHAPTER XXI.

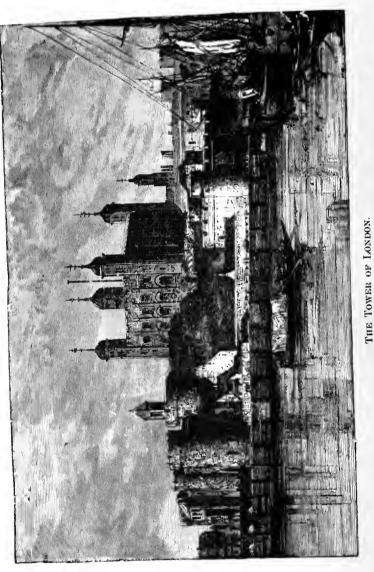
HENRY VI., OF WINDSOR.

A.D. 1423-1461.

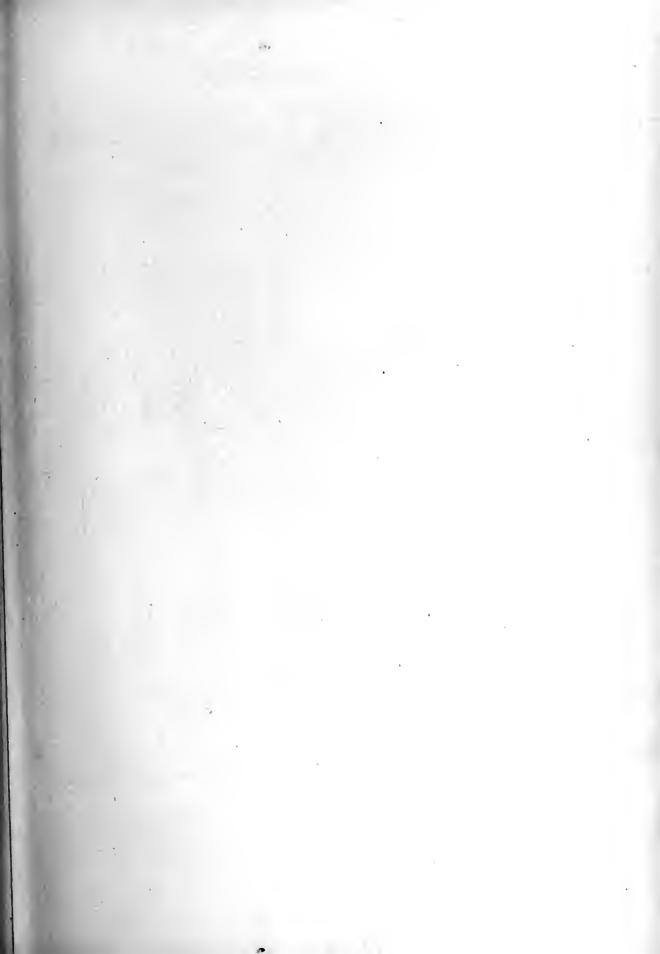
HE poor little baby, Henry VI., was but nine months old when —over the grave of his father in England, and his grandfather in France—he was proclaimed King of France and England. The crown of England was held over his head, and his lords made their oaths to him; and when he was nine years old he was sent to Paris, and there crowned King of France. He was a very good, little, gentle boy, as meek and obedient as possible; but his friends, who knew that a king must be brave, strong, and firm for his people's sake, began to be

afraid that nothing would ever make him manly. The war in France went on all the time: the Duke of Bedford keeping the north and the old lands in the south-west for little Henry, and the French doing their best for their rightful king—though he was so lazy and fond of pleasure that he let them do it all alone. Yet a wonderful thing happened in his favor. The English were besieging Orleans, when a young village girl, named Joan of Arc, came to King Charles and told him that she had had a commission from Heaven to save Orleans, and to lead him to Rheims, where French kings were always crowned. And she did! She always acted as one led by Heaven. She never let anything wrong be done in her sight—no bad words spoken, no savage deeds done; and she never fought herself, only led the French soldiers. The English thought her a witch, and fled like sheep whenever they

saw her; and the French common men were always brave with her to lead them. And so she really saved Orleans, and brought the king to be crowned at Rheims. But neither Charles nor his selfish bad nobles liked her. She was too good for them; and so, though they would not let her go home to



her village as she wished, they gave her no proper help; and once, when there was a fight going on outside the walls of a town, the French all ran away and left her outside, where she was taken by the English. And then, we are sorry to say, the court that sat to judge her—some English and some French of the English party—sentenced her to be burnt to death





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But the spirit she had tirred up never died away. The free written, winning back more and note; and there were so many queries. The English that they had table chance of keeping and the process uncle, Humfrey, It keed Gion ester, was the Beaufort family. John on saunt, Porke of La are that the Beaufort family. John on saunt, Porke of La are that the died Beaufort, after the caste where they were here a series of and thought themselves equal to no be by the process of the law of th

All these time; the king liked the Beamous me to be and a Il faller, and he followed their all ic and that of the free print is in marrying Margaret of Ary 1 - the dard and at he what had a right to a great part of the bouls the English let. All ... wedligen back to her father, and this and the lanke of the lester . all the linglish more angry, and the lated the young a een if the ca-Sho was as bold and high-spirited a the king was north and me to the loved nothing so well as praying, but it God, at reading and as a one great thing for the country - on this door for it that the great many of the best clergymen, soldiers and states remaining the difference or dispersion But while he was happy over the shores, and making the I coutiful chapet, the queen was and racking pass in the granecome the nation lated her the more for the Andrew, arangely livery. Duke of Gloucester, was, and the many Parliament, as apply of the treason and sam to prison, where . . for days, he was benefit at to 1-just like his grat-under The was, Duke of Chare the second one understand the mystery in one case better than in the commence of we are more sure that genule Heavy "I, had nothing to the start ! on be of Richard H.

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in the market-place at Rouen as a witch, and her own king never tried to save her.

But the spirit she had stirred up never died away. The French went on winning back more and more; and there were so many quarrels among the English that they had little chance of keeping anything. The king's youngest uncle, Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester, was always disputing with the Beaufort family. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster—father to Henry IV.—had, late in life, married a person of low birth, and her children were called Beaufort, after the castle where they were born—not Plantagenet—and were hardly reckoned as princes by other people; but they were very proud, and thought themselves equal to anybody. The good Duke of Bedford died quite worn out with trying to keep the peace among them, and to get proper help from England to save the lands his brother had won in France.

All this time, the king liked the Beauforts much better than Duke Humfrey, and he followed their advice, and that of their friend, the Earl of Suffolk, in marrying Margaret of Anjon-the daughter of a French prince, who had a right to a great part of the lands the English held. All these were given back to her father, and this made the Duke of Gloucester and all the English more angry, and they hated the young queen as the cause. She was as bold and high-spirited as the king was gentle and meek. He loved nothing so well as praying, praising God, and reading; and he did one great thing for the country—which did more for it than all the fighting kings had done-he founded Eton College, close to Windsor Castle; and there many of the best clergymen, soldiers, and statesmen, have had their education. But while he was happy over rules for his scholars, and in plans for the beautiful chapel, the queen was eagerly taking part in the quarrels, and the nation hated her the more for interfering. And very strangely, Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester, was, at the meeting of Parliament, accused of high treason and sent to prison, where, in a few days, he was found dead in his bed—just like his great-uncle, Thomas, Duke of Gloucester; nor does any one understand the mystery in one case better than in the other, except that we are more sure that gentle Henry VI. had nothing to do with it than we can be of Richard II.

These were very bad times. There was a rising like Wat Tyler's, under a man named Jack Cade, who held London for two or three days before he was put down; and, almost at the same time, the queen's first English friend, Suffolk, was exiled by her enemies, and taken at sea and murdered by some sailors. Moreover, the last of the brave old friends of Henry V. was killed in France, while trying to save the remains of the old duchy of Aquitaine, which had belonged to the English kings ever since Henry II. married Queen Eleanor. That was the end of the hundred years' war, for

peace was made at last, and England kept nothing in France but the one

city of Calais.

Still things were growing worse. Duke Humfrey left no children, and as time went on and the king had none, the question was who should reign. If the Beauforts were to be counted as princes, they came next; but every one hated them, so that people recollected that Henry IV. had thrust aside the young Edmund Mortimer, grandson to Lionel, who had been next eldest to the Black Prince. Edmund was dead, but his sister Anne had married a son of the Duke of York, youngest son of Edward III.; and her son Richard, Duke of York, could not help feeling that he had a much better right to be king than any Beaufort. There was a great English noble named Richard Nevil, Earl of Warwick, who liked to manage everything—just the sort of baron that was always mischievous at home, if not fighting in France —and he took up York's cause hotly. York's friends used to wear white roses, Beaufort's friends red roses, and the two parties kept on getting more bitter; but as no one wished any ill to gentle King Henry—who, to make matters worse, sometimes had fits of madness, like his poor grandfather in France—they would hardly have fought it out in his lifetime, if he had not at last had a little son, who was born while he was so mad that he did not Then, when York found it was of no use to wait, he began to make war, backed up by Warwick, and, after much fighting, they made the king prisoner, and forced him to make an agreement that he should reign as long as he lived, but that after that Richard of York should be king, and his son Edward be only Duke of Lancaster. This made the queen furiously angry. She would not give up her son's rights, and she gathered a great army, with which she came suddenly on the Duke of York near Wakefield, and destroyed nearly his whole army. He was killed in the battle; and his second son, Edmund, was met on Wakefield bridge and stabbed by Lord Clifford; and Margaret had their heads set up over the gates of York, while she went on to London to free her husband.

But Edward, York's eldest son, was a better captain than he, and far fiercer and more cruel. He made the war much more savage than it had been before; and, after beating the queen's friends at Mortimer's Cross, he hurried on to London, where the people—who had always been very fond of his father, and hated Queen Margaret—greeted him gladly. He was handsome and stately looking; and though he was really cruel when offended, had easy, good-natured manners, and every one in London was delighted to receive him and own him as king. But Henry and Margaret were in the north with many friends, and he followed them thither to Towton Moor, where, in a snow-storm, began the most cruel and savage battle of all the war. Edward gained the victory, and nobody was spared, or made prisoner—all were killed who could not flee. Poor Henry was hidden among his

friends, and Margaret went to seek help in Scotland and abroad, taking her son with her. Once she brought another army and fought at Hexham, but she was beaten again; and before long King Henry was discovered by his enemies, carried to London, and shut up a prisoner in the Tower. His reign is reckoned to have ended in 1461.



## CHAPTER XXII:

EDWARD IV.

A.D. 1461-1483.

HOUGH Edward IV. was made king, the wars of the Red and White Roses were not over yet. Queen Margaret and her friends were always trying to get help for poor King Henry. Edward had been so base and mean as to have him led into London, with his feet tied together under his horse, while men struck him on the face, and cried out, "Behold the traitor!" But Henry was meek, patient, and gentle throughout; and, when shut up in the Tower, spent his time in reading and praying, or playing with his little dog.

· Queen Margaret and her son Edward were living with her father in France, and she was always trying to have her husband set free and brought back to his throne. In the meantime, all England was exceedingly surprised to find that Edward IV. had been secretly married to a beautiful lady named Elizabeth Woodville—Lady Grey. Her first husband had been killed fighting for Henry, and she had stood under an oak-tree, when King Edward was passing, to entreat that his lands might not be taken from her little boys. The king fell in love with her and married her, but for a long time he was afraid to tell the Earl of Warwick; and when he did, Warwick was greatly offended—and all the more because Elizabeth's relations were proud and gay in their dress, and tried to set themselves above all the old nobles. Warwick himself had no son, but he had two daughters, whom he meant to marry to the king's two brothers—George, Duke of Clarence, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester. Edward thought this would make Warwick too powerful, and though he could not prevent George from marrying Isabel Nevil, the eldest daughter, the discontent grew so strong that Warwick persuaded George to fly with him, turn against his own brother, and offer Queen Margaret their help! No wonder Margaret did not trust them, and was very hard to persuade that Warwick could mean well by her; but at last she consented, and gave her son Edward—a fine lad of sixteen—to marry his daughter, Anne Nevil; after which, Warwick—whom men began to call the king-maker—went back to England with Clarence, to raise their



LOUIS XI, PERSUADES EDWARD IV. TO RETURN HOME UPON PAYMENT OF A SUM OF MONEY.

(THEY CONVERSED THROUGH A FENCE, BEING AFRAID OF MEETING WITHOUT A BARRIER BETWEEN THEM)

men, while she was to follow with her son and his young wife. Warwick came so suddenly that he took the Yorkists at unawares. Edward had to flee for his life to Flanders, leaving his wife and her babies to take shelter in Westminster Abbey—since no one durst take any one out of a holy place—and poor Henry was taken out of prison and set on the throne again. However, Edward soon got help in Flanders, where his sister was married

to the Duke of Burgundy. He came back again, gathered his friends, and sent messages to his brother Clarence that he would forgive him if he would desert the earl. No one ever had less faith or honor than George of Clarence. He did desert Warwick, just as the battle of Barnet Heath was beginning; and Warwick's king-making all ended, for he was killed, with his brother and many others, in the battle.

And this was the first news that met Margaret when, after being long hindered by foul weather, she landed at Plymouth. She would have done more wisely to have gone back, but her son Edward longed to strike a blow for his inheritance, and they had friends in Wales whom they hoped to meet. So they made their way into Gloucestershire; but there King Edward, with both his brothers, came down upon them at Tewkesbury, and there their army was routed, and the young prince taken and killed—some say by the king himself and his brothers. Poor broken-hearted Queen Margaret was made prisoner too, and carried to the Tower, where she arrived a day or two after the meek and crazed captive, Henry VI., had been slain, that there might be no more risings in his name. And so ended the long war of York and Lancaster—though not in peace or joy to the savage, faithless family who had conquered.

Edward was merry and good-natured when not angered, and had quite sense and ability enough to have been a very good king, if he had not been lazy, selfish, and full of vices. He actually set out to conquer France, and then let himself be persuaded over and paid off by the cunning King of France, and went home again, a laughing-stock to everybody. As to George, the king had never trusted him since his shameful behavior when Warwick rebelled; besides, he was always abusing the queen's relations, and Richard was always telling the king of all the bad and foolish things he did or said. At last there was a great outbreak of anger, and the king ordered the Duke of Clarence to be imprisoned in the Tower; and there, before long, he too was killed. The saying was that he was drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine; but this is not at all likely to be true. He left two little children, a boy and a girl.

So much cruel slaughter had taken place, that most of the noble families in England had lost many sons, and a great deal of their wealth, and none of them ever became again so mighty as the king-maker had been. His daughter, Anne, the wife of poor Edward of Lancaster, was found by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, hiding as a cook-maid in London, and she was persuaded to marry him—as, indeed, she had always been intended for him. He was a little, thin, slight man, with one shoulder higher than the other, and keen, cunning dark eyes; and as the king was very tall, with a hand-some, blue-eyed, fair face, people laughed at the contrast, called Gloucester Richard Crookback, and were very much afraid of him.

It was in this reign that books began to be printed in England instead of written. Printing had been found out in Germany a little before, and books had been shown to Henry VI., but the troubles of his time kept him from attending to them. Now, however, Edward's sister, the Duchess of Burgundy, much encouraged a printer named Caxton, whose books she sent her brother, and other presses were set up in London. Another great change had now come in. Long ago, in the time of Henry III., a monk named Roger Bacon had made gunpowder; but nobody used it much until, in the reign of Edward III., it was found out how cannon might be fired with it; and some say it was first used in the battle of Crecy. But it was not till the reign of Edward IV. that smaller guns, such as each soldier could carry one of for himself, were invented—harquebuses, as they were called;—and after this the whole way of fighting was gradually altered. Printing and gunpowder both made very great changes in everything, though not all at once.

King Edward did not live to see the changes. He had hurt his health with his revellings and amusements, and died quite in middle age, in the year 1483: seeing, perhaps, at last, how much better a king he might have

been.



## CHAPTER XXIII.

EDWARD V.

A.D. 1483.

OWARD IV. left several daughters and two sons—Edward, Prince of Wales, who was fourteen years old, and Richard, Duke of York, who was eleven. Edward was at Ludlow Castle—where the princes of Wales were always brought up—with his mother's brother, Lord Rivers; his half-brother, Richard Grey; and other gentlemen. When the tidings came of his father's death, they set out to bring him to London to be crowned king.

But, in the meantime, the Duke of Gloucester and several of the noblemen, especially the Duke of Buckingham, agreed that it was unbearable that the queen and her brothers should go on having all the power, as they had done in Edward's time. Till the king was old enough to govern, his father's brother, the Duke of Gloucester, was the proper person to rule for him, and they would soon put an end to the Woodvilles. The long wars had made everybody cruel and regardless of the laws, so that

no one made much objection when Gloucester and Buckingham met the king and took him from his uncle and half-brother, who were sent off to Pontefract Castle, and in a short time their heads were cut off there. Another of the late king's friends was Lord Hastings; and as he sat at the council table in the Tower of London, with the other lords, Richard came in, and, showing his own lean, shrunken arm, declared that Lord Hastings had bewitched him, and made it so. The other lords began to say that if he had done so it was horrible. But Richard would listen to no if's, and said he would not dine till Hastings's head was off. And his cruel word was done.

The queen saw that harm was intended, and went with all her other children to her former refuge in the sanctuary at Westminster; nor would she leave it when her son Edward rode in state into London and was taken to the Tower, which was then a palace as well as a prison.

The Duke of Gloucester and the Council said that this pretence at fear was very foolish, and was only intended to do them harm, and that the little Duke of York ought to be with his brother; and they sent the Archbishop of Canterbury to desire her to give the boy up. He found the queen sitting desolate, with all her long light hair streaming about her, and her children round her; and he spoke kindly to her at first, and tried to persuade her of what he really believed himself—that it was all her foolish fears and fancies that the Duke of Gloucester could mean any ill to his little nephew, and that the two brothers ought to be together in his keeping.

Elizabeth cried, and said that the boys were better apart, for they quarrelled when they were together, and that she could not give up little Richard. In truth, she guessed that their uncle wanted to get rid of them and to reign himself; and she knew that while she had Richard, Edward would be safe, since it would not make him king to destroy one without the other. Archbishop Bourchier, who believed Richard's smooth words, and was a very good, kind man, thought this all a woman's nonsense, and told her that if she would not give up the boy freely, he would be taken from her by force. If she had been really a wise, brave mother, she would have gone to the Tower with her boy, as queen and mother, and watched over her children herself. But she had always been a silly, selfish woman, and she was afraid for herself. So she let the archbishop lead her child away, and only sat crying in the sanctuary instead of keeping sight of him.

The next thing that happened was, that the Duke of Gloucester caused one Dr. Shaw to preach a sermon to the people of London in the open air, explaining that King Edward IV. had been a very bad man, and had never been properly married to Lady Grey, and so that she was no queen at all, and her children had no right to reign. The Londoners liked Gloucester and hated the Woodvilles, and all belonging to them, and after some sermons

and speeches of this sort, there were so many people inclined to take as their king the man rather than the boy, that the Duke of Buckingham led a deputation to request Richard to accept the crown in his nephew's stead. He met it as if the whole notion was quite new to him, but, of course, accepted the crown, sent for his wife, Anne Nevil, and her son, and was a soon crowned as King Richard III. of England.

As for the two boys, they were never seen out of the Tower again. They were sent into the prison part of it, and nobody exactly knows what became of them there; but there cannot be much doubt that they must have been murdered. Some years later, two men confessed that they had been employed to smother the two brothers with pillows, as they slept; and though they added some particulars to the story that can hardly be believed, it is most likely that this was true. Full two hundred years later, a chest was found under a staircase, in what is called the White Tower, containing bones that evidently had belonged to boys of about fourteen and eleven years old; and these were placed in a marble urn among the tombs of the kings in Westminster Abbey. But even to this day, there are some people who doubt whether Edward V. and Richard of York were really murdered, or if Richard were not a person who came back to England and tried to make himself king.



# CHAPTER XXIV.

RICHARD III.

A.D. 1483-1485.

CHARD III. seems to have wished to be a good and great king; but he had made his way to the throne in too evil a manner to be likely to prosper. How many people he had put to death we do not know; for when the English began to suspect that he had murdered his two nephews, they also accused him of the death of every one who had been secretly slain ever since Edward IV. came to the throne, when he had been a mere boy. He found he must be always on the watch; and his home was unhappy, for his son, for whose sake he had

striven so hard to be king, died while yet a boy, and Anne, his wife, not long after.

Then his former staunch friend, the Duke of Buckingham, began to feel that though he wanted the sons of Elizabeth Woodville to be set aside from

reigning, it was quite another thing to murder them. He was a vain, proud man, who had a little royal blood—being descended from Thomas, the first Duke of Gloucester, son of Edward III.—and he bethought himself that, now all the House of Lancaster was gone, and so many of the House of York, he might possibly become king. But he had hardly begun to make a plot, before the keen-sighted, watchful Richard found it out, and had him seized and beheaded.

There was another plot, though, that Richard did not find out in time. The real House of Lancaster had ended when poor young Edward was killed at Tewkesbury; but the Beauforts—the children of that younger family of John of Gaunt, who had first begun the quarrel with the Duke of York—were not all dead. Lady Margaret Beaufort, the daughter of the eldest son, had married a Welsh gentleman named Edmund Tudor, and had a son called Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. Edward IV. had always feared that this youth might rise against him, and he had been obliged to wander about in France and Brittany since the death of his father; but nobody was afraid of Lady Margaret, and she had married a Yorkist nobleman, Lord Stanley.

Now, the eldest daughter of Edward IV.—Elizabeth, or Lady Bessee, as she was called—was older than her poor young brothers; and she heard, to her great horror, that her uncle wanted to commit the great wickedness of making her his wife, after poor Anne Nevil's death. There is a curious old set of verses, written by Lord Stanley's squire, which says that Lady Bessee called Lord Stanley to a secret room, and begged him to send to his stepson, Richmond, to invite him to come to England and set them all free.

Stanley said he could not write well enough, and that he could not trust a scribe; but Lady Bessee said she could write as well as any scribe in England. So she told him to come to her chamber at nine that evening, with his trusty squire; and there she wrote letters, kneeling by the table, to all the noblemen likely to be discontented with Richard, and appointing a place of meeting with Stanley; and she promised herself that, if Henry Tudor would come and overthrow the cruel tyrant Richard, she would marry him: and she sent him a ring in pledge of her promise.

Henry was in Brittany when he received the letter. He kissed the ring, but waited long before he made up his mind to try his fortune. At last he sailed in a French ship, and landed at Milford Haven—for he knew the Welsh would be delighted to see him; and, as he was really descended from the great old British chiefs, they seemed to think that to make him king of England would be almost like having King Arthur back again.

They gathered round him, and so did a great many English nobles and gentlemen. But Richard, though very angry, was not much alarmed, for he knew Henry Tudor had never seen a battle. He marched out to meet him,

and a terrible fight took place at Redmore Heath, near Market Bosworth, where, after long and desperate struggling, Richard was overwhelmed and slain, his banner taken, and his men either killed or driven from the field. His body was found gashed, bleeding, and stripped: and thus was thrown across a horse and carried into Leicester, where he had slept the night before. The crown he had worn over his helmet was picked up from the branches of a hawthorn, and set on the head of Henry Tudor. Richard was the last king of the Plantagenet family, who had ruled over England for more than three hundred years. This battle of Bosworth likewise finished the whole bloody war of the Red and White Roses.



## CHAPTER XXV.

HENRY VII,

A.D. 1485-1509.

ENRY Tudor married the Lady Bessee as soon as he came to London, and by this marriage the causes of the Red and White Roses were united: so that he took for his badge a great rose—half red and half white. It may be seen carved all over the beautiful chapel that he built on to Westminster Abbey to be buried in.

He was not a very pleasant person; he was stiff, and cold, and dry, and very mean and covetous in some ways—though he liked to make a grand show, and dress all his court in

cloth of gold and silver, and the very horses in velvet housings, whenever there was any state occasion. Nobody greatly cared for him; but the whole country was so worn out with the troubles of the Wars of the Roses, that there was no desire to interfere with him; and people only grumbled, and said he did not treat his gentle, beautiful wife Elizabeth as he ought to do, but was jealous of her being a king's daughter. There was one person who did hate him most bitterly, and that was the Duchess of Burgundy, the sister of Edward IV. and Richard III.: the same one who encouraged printing so much. She felt as if a mean upstart had got into the place of her brothers, and his having married her niece did not make it seem a bit the better to her. There was one nephew left—the poor young orphan son of George, Duke of Clarence—but he had always been quite silly, and Henry VII. had him watched carefully, for fear some one should set him up to claim the

crown. He was called Earl of Warwick, as heir to his grandfather, the king-maker.

Suddenly, a young man came to Ireland and pretended to be this Earl of Warwick. He deceived a good many of the Irish, and the Mayor of Dublin



CHAPEL OF HENRY VII.

actually took him to St. Patrick's Cathedral, where he was crowned as King Edward the Sixth; and then he was carried to the banquet upon an Irish chieftain's back. He came to England with some Irish followers, and some German soldiers hired by the Duchess; and a few, but not many, English joined him. Henry met him at a village called Stoke, near Newark, and all

his Germans and Irish were killed, and he himself made prisoner. Then he confessed that he was really a baker's son, named Lambert Simnel; and, as he turned out to be a poor weak lad, whom designing people had made to do just what they pleased, the king took him into his kitchen as a scullion; and, as he behaved well there, afterward set him to look after the falcons, that people used to keep to go out with to eateh partridges and herons.

But after this, a young man appeared under the protection of the Duchess of Burgundy, who said he was no other than the poor little Duke of. York, Richard, who had escaped from the Tower when his brother was murdered. Englishmen, who came from Flanders, said that he was a clever. cowardly lad of the name of Peter (or Perkin) Warbeck, the son of a townsman of Tournay; but the Duchess persuaded King James IV. of Scotland to believe him a real royal Plantagenet. He went to Edinburgh, married a beautiful lady, cousin to the king, and James led him into England at the head of an army to put forward his claim. But nobody would join him. and the Scots did not care about him; so James sent him away to Ireland, whence he went to Cornwall. However, he soon found fighting was of no use, and fled away to the New Forest, where he was taken prisoner. He was set in the stocks, and there made to confess that he was really Perkin Warbeck and no duke, and then he was shut up in the Tower. But there he made friends with the real Earl of Warwick, and persuaded him into a plan for escape; but this was found out, and Henry, thinking that he should never have any peace or safety while either of them was alive. caused Perkin to be hanged, and poor innocent Edward of Warwick to be beheaded.

It was thought that this cruel deed was done because Henry found that foreign kings did not-think him safe upon the throne while one Plantagenet was left alive, and would not give their children in marriage to his sons and daughters. He was very anxious to make grand marriages for his children, and made peace with Scotland by a wedding between King James and his eldest daughter, Margaret. For his eldest son, Arthur, Prince of Wales, he obtained Katharine, the daughter of the King of Aragon and Queen of Castille, and she was brought to England while both were mere children. Prince Arthur died when only eighteen years old; and King Henry then said that they had been both such children, that they could not be considered as really married, and so that Katharine had better marry his next son, Henry, although every one knew that no marriage between a man and his brother's widow could be lawful. The truth was that he did not like to give up all the money and jewels she had brought; and the matter remained in dispute for some years—nor was it settled when King Henry himself died, after an illness that no one expected would cause his death. Nobody was very sorry for him, for he had been hard upon every one, and had encouraged two wicked judges, named Dudley and Empson, who made people pay most unjust demands, and did everything to fill the king's treasury and make themselves rich at the same time.

It was a time when many changes were going on peacefully. The great nobles had grown much poorer and less powerful; and the country squires and chief people in the towns reckoned for much more in the State. Moreover, there was much learning and study going on everywhere. Greek began to be taught as well as Latin, and the New Testament was thus read in the language in which the apostles themselves wrote; and that led people to think over some of the evil ways that had grown up in their churches and abbeys, during those long, grievous years, when no one thought of much but fighting, or of getting out of the way of the enemy.

The king himself, and all his family, loved learning, and nobody more than his son Henry, who—if his elder brother had lived—was to have been

archbishop of Canterbury.

It was in this reign, too, that America was discovered—though not by the English, but by Christopher Columbus, an Italian, who went out in ships that were lent to him by Isabel, the Queen of Spain, mother to Katherine, Princess of Wales. Henry had been very near sending Columbus, only he did not like spending so much money. However, he afterward did send out some ships, which discovered Newfoundland. Henry died in the year 1509.



#### CHAPTER XXVI.

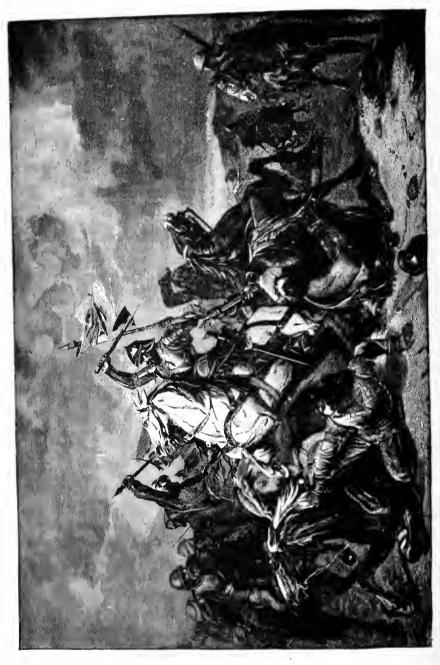
HENRY VIII. AND CARDINAL WOLSEY.

A.D. 1509-1529.

HE new king was very fond of the Princess Katharine, and he married her soon after his father's death, without asking any more questions about the right or wrong of it. He began with very gallant and prosperous times. He was very handsome, and skilled in all sports and games, and had such frank, free manners, that the people felt as if they had one of their best old Plantagenets back again. They were pleased, too, when he quarreled with the King of France, and, like an old Plantagenet, led an army across the sea and besieged the town

of Tournay. Again, it was like the time of Edward III., for James IV. of Scotland was a friend of the French king and came across the Border with

all the strength of Scotland, to ravage England while Henry was away. But there were plenty of stout Englishmen left, and, under the Earl of Surrey,



THE BATTLE OF THE SPURS.

they beat the Scots entirely at the battle of Flodden field: and King James himself was not taken, but left dead upon the field, while his kingdom went to his poor little baby son. Though there had been a battle in France, it

was not another Crecy, for the French ran away so fast that it was called the battle of the Spurs. However, Henry's expedition did not come to much, for he did not get all the help he was promised; and he made peace with the French king, giving him in marriage his beautiful young sister Mary—though King Louis was an old, helpless, sickly man. Indeed, he only lived six weeks after the wedding, and before there was time to fetch Queen Mary home again, she had married a gentleman named Charles Brandon. She told her brother that she had married once to please him, and now she had married to please herself. But he forgave her, and made her husband Duke of Suffolk.

Henry's chief adviser, at this time, was Thomas Wolsey, Archbishop of York: a very able man, and of most splendid tastes and habits—outdoing even the Tudors in love of show. The pope had made him a cardinal—that is, one of the clergy who are counted as parish priests in the diocese of Rome, and therefore have a right to choose the pope. They wear scarlet hats, capes, and shoes, and are the highest in rank of all the clergy except the pope. Indeed, Cardinal Wolsey was in hopes of being chosen pope himself, and setting the whole Church to rights—for there had been several very wicked men reigning at Rome, one after the other, and they had brought things to such a pass that every one felt there would be some great judgment from God if some improvement were not made. Most of Wolsey's arrangements with foreign princes had this end in view. The new king of France, Francis I., was young, brilliant, and splendid, like Henry, and the two had a conference near Calais, when they brought their queens and their whole Court, and put up tents of velvet, silk, and gold—while everything was so extraordinarily magnificent, that the meeting has ever since been called the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

However, nothing came of it all. Cardinal Wolsey thought Francis's enemy—the Emperor, Charles V.—more likely to help him to be pope, and made his master go over to that side; but after all an Italian was chosen in his stead. And there came a new trouble in his way. The king and queen had been married a good many years, and they had only one child alive, and that was a girl, the Lady Mary—all the others had died as soon as they were born—and statesmen began to think that if there never was a son at all, there might be fresh wars when Henry died; while others said that the loss of the children was to punish them for marrying unlawfully. Wolsey himself began to wish that the pope would say that it had never been a real marriage, and so set the king free to put Katharine away and take another wife—some grand princess abroad. This was thinking more of what seemed prudent than of the right; and it turned out ill for Wolsey and all besides, for no sooner had the notion of setting aside poor Katharine come into his mind, than the king cast his eyes on Anne Boleyn, one of her maids of

honor-a lively lady, who had been to France with his sister Mary. He was bent on marrying her, and insisted on the pope's giving sentence against Katharine. But the pope would not make any answer at all; first, because he was enquiring, and then because he could not well offend Katharine's nephew, the Emperor. Time went on, and the king grew more impatient. and at last a clergyman, named Thomas Cranmer, said that he might settle the matter by asking the learned men at the universities whether it was lawful for a man to marry his brother's widow. "He has got the right sow by the ear," cried Henry, who was not choice in his words, and he determined that the universities should decide it. But Wolsey would not help the king here. He knew that the pope had been the only person to decide such questions all over the Western Church for many centuries; and, besides, he had never intended to assist the king to lower himself by taking a wife like Anne Boleyn. But his secretary, Thomas Crumwell, told the king all of Wolsey's disapproval, and between them they found out something that the cardinal had done by the king's own wish, but which did not agree with the old disused laws. He was put down from all his offices of state, and accused of treason against the king; but while he was being brought to London to be tried, he became so ill at the abbey at Leicester that he was forced to remain there, and in a few days he died, saying, sadly-"If I had served my God as I have served my king, He would not have forsaken me in my old age."

With Cardinal Wolsey ended the first twenty years of Henry's reign, and

all that had ever been good in it.



### CHAPTER XXVII.

HENRY VIII. AND HIS WIVES.

A.D. 1528-1547.

HEN Henry VIII. had so ungratefully treated Cardinal Wolsey, there was no one to keep him in order. He would have no more to do with the pope, but said he was head of the Church of England himself, and could settle matters his own way. He really was a very learned man, and had written a book to uphold the doctrines of the Church, which had eaused the pope to eall him the Defender of the Faith. After the king's or queen's name on a coin may be seen F. D.—Fidei Defensor. This stands for that name in

Latin. But Henry used his learning now against the pope. He declared that his marriage with Katharine was good for nothing, and sent her away to a house in Huntingdonshire, where, in three years' time, she pined away and died. In the meantime, he had married Anne Boleyn, taken Crumwell for his chief adviser, and had made Thomas Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury. Then, calling himself Head of the Church, he insisted that all his people should own him as such; but the good ones knew that our Lord Jesus Christ is the only real Head of the Church, and they had learnt to believe that the pope is the father bishop of the west, though he had sometimes taken more power than he ought, and no king could ever be the same as a patriarch or father bishop. So they refused, and Henry cut off the heads of two of the best-Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More-though they had been his great friends. Sir Thomas More's good daughter, Margaret, came and kissed him on his way to be executed; and afterward, when his head was placed on a spike on London Bridge, she came by night in a boat and took it home in her arms.

There were many people, however, who were glad to break with the pope, because so much had gone amiss in the Church, and they wanted to set it to rights. There was so much more reading, now that printing had been invented, that many persons could read who had never learnt Latin, and so a translation of the Bible was to be made for them; and there was a great desire that the Church Services—many of which had also been in Latin—should likewise be put into English, and the litany was first translated,—but no more at present. The king and Crumwell had taken it upon

them to go on with what had been begun in Wolsey's time—the looking into the state of all the monasteries. Some were found going on badly, and the messengers took care to make the worst of everything. So all the worst houses were broken up, and the monks sent to their homes, with a small payment to maintain them for the rest of their lives.

As to the lands that good men of old had given to keep up the convents, that God might be praised there, Henry made gifts of them to the lords about court. Whoever chose to ask for an abbey could get it, from the king's good nature; and, as they wanted more and more, Henry went on breaking up the monasteries, till the whole of them were gone. A good deal of their riches he kept for himself, and two new bishoprics were endowed from their spoils, but most of them were bestowed on the courtiers.



ANNE BOLEYN.

JANE SEYMOUR.

KATHARINE HOWARD.

The king, however, did not at all intend to change the teaching of the Church, and whenever a person was detected in teaching anything contrary to her doctrines, as they were at that time understood, he was tried by a court of clergynen and lawyers before the bishop, and, if convicted, was—according to the cruel custom of those times—burnt to death at a stake in the market-place of the next town.

Meantime, the new queen, Anne Boleyn, had not prospered. She had one little daughter, named Elizabeth, and a son, who died; and then the king began to admire one of her ladies, named Jane Seymour. Seeing this, Anne's enemies either invented stories against her, or made the worst of some foolish, unlady-like, and unqueen-like things she had said and done, so that the king thought she wished for his death. She was accused of high treason, sentenced to death, and beheaded: thus paying a heavy price for the harm she had done good Queen Katharine.

The king, directly after, married Jane Seymour; but she lived only a very short time, dying immediately after the christening of her first son, who was named Edward.

Then the king was persuaded by Lord Crumwell to marry a foreign princess called Anne of Cleves. A great painter was sent to bring her picture, and made her very beautiful in it; but when she arrived, she proved to be not only plain-featured but large and clumsy, and the king could not bear the sight of her, and said they had sent him a great Flanders mare by way of queen. So he made Crummer find some foolish excuse for breaking this marriage also, and was so angry with Thomas Crumwell for having led him into it, that this favorite was in his turn thrown into prison and beheaded.

The king chose another English wife, named Katharine Howard; but, after he had married her, it was found out that she had been very ill brought up, and the bad people with whom she had been left came and accused her of the evil into which they had led her. So the king cut off her head likewise, and then wanted to find another wife; but no foreign princess would take a husband who had put away two wives and beheaded two more, and one Italian lady actually answered that she was much obliged to him, but she could not venture to marry him, because she had only one neck.

At last he found an English widow, Lady Latimer, whose maiden name was Katharine Parr, and married her. He was diseased now, lame with gout, and very large and fat; and she nursed him kindly, and being a goodnatured woman, persuaded him to be kinder to his daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, than he had ever been since the disgrace of their mothers; and she did her best to keep him in good humor, but he went on doing cruel things, even to the end of his life; and, at the very last, had in prison the very same Duke of Norfolk who had won the battle of Flodden, and would have put him to death in a few days' time, only that his own death prevented it.

Yet, strange to say, Henry VIII. was not hated as might have been expected. His cruelties were chiefly to the nobles, not to the common people; and he would do good-natured things, and speak with a frank, open manner, that was much liked. England was prosperous, too, and shopkeepers, farmers, and all were well off; there was plenty of bread and meat for all, and the foreign nations were afraid to go to war with England. So the English people, on the whole, loved "Bluff King Hal," as they called him, and did not think much about his many wickednesses, or care how many heads he cut off. He died in the year 1547. The changes in his time are generally called the beginning of the Reformation.

# CHAPTER XXVIII.

EDWARD VI.

A.D. 1547-1553.

IE little son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour of course reigned after him as Edward VI. He was a quiet, gentle boy, exceedingly fond of learning and study, and there were great expectations of him; but, as he was only nine years old, the affairs of state were managed by his council.

The chief of the conneil were his two uncles—his mother's brothers, Edward and Thomas Seymour, the elder of whom had been made Duke of Somerset—together with Archbishop Cranmer; but it was not long before the duke quarreled

with his brother Thomas, put him into the Tower, and cut off his head; so that it seemed as if the sad days of Henry VIII. were not yet over.

The Duke of Somerset and Archbishop Cranmer wanted to make many more changes in the Church of England than Henry VIII, had ever allowed. They had all the Prayer-book Services translated into English, leaving out such parts as they did not approve; the Lessons were read from the English Bible, and people were greatly delighted at being able to worship and to listen to God's Word in their own tongue. The first day on which the English Prayer-book was used was the Whitsunday of 1548. The Bibles were chained to the desks as being so precious and valuable; and crowds would stand, or sit, and listen for hours together to any one who would read to them, without caring if he were a clergyman or not; and men who tried to explain, without being properly taught, often made great mistakes.

Indeed, in Germany and France a great deal of the same kind had been going on for some time past, though not with any sort of leave from the kings or bishops, as there was in England, and thus the reformers there broke quite off from the Church, and fancied they could do without bishops. This great break was called the Reformation, because it professed to set matters of religion to rights; and in Germany the reformers called themselves Protestants, because they protested against some of the teachings of the Church of Rome.

Cranmer had at one time been in Germany, and had made friends with some of these German and Swiss Protestants, and he invited them to England to consult and help him and his friends. Several of them came, and they found fault with the old English Prayer-book—though it had never been the same as the Roman one—and it was altered again to please them and their friends, and brought out as King Edward's second book. Indeed, they tried to persuade the English to be like themselves—with very few



EDWARD VI. WRITING HIS JOURNAL.

services, no ornaments in the churches, and no bishops; and things seemed to be tending more and more to what they desired, for the king was too young not to do what his tutors and governors wished, and his uncle and Cranmer were all on their side.

However, there was another great nobleman, the Duke of Northumberland, who wanted to be as powerful as the Duke of Somerset. He was the son of Dudley, the wicked judge under Henry VII., who had made himself so rich, and he managed to take advantage of the people being discontented with Somerset to get the king into his own hands, accuse Somerset of

treason, send him to the Tower, and cut off his head.

The king at this time was sixteen. He had never been strong, and he had learnt and worked much more than was good for him. He wrote a journal; and though he never says he grieved for his uncles, most likely he did, for he had few near him who really loved or cared for him, and he was fast falling into a decline, so that it became quite plain that he was not likely ever to be a grown-up king. There was a great difficulty as to who was to reign after him. The natural person would have been his eldest sister, Mary, but King Henry had forbidden her and Elizabeth to be spoken of as princesses or heiresses of the crown; and, besides, Mary held so firmly to the Church, as she had learnt to believe in it in her youth, that the reformers knew she would undo all their work.

There was a little Scottish girl, also named Mary—the grand-daughter of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. Poor child, she had been a queen from babyhood, for her father had died of grief when she was but a week old; and there had been some notion of marrying her to King Edward, and so ending the wars; but the Scots did not like this, and sent her away to be married to the Dauphin, François, eldest son of the king of France. If Edward's sisters were not to reign, she came next; but the English would not have borne to be joined on to the French; and there were the granddaughters of Mary, that other sister of Henry VIII., who were thorough Englishwomen. Lady Jane Grey, the eldest of them, was a good, sweet. pious, and diligent girl of fifteen, wonderfully learned. But it was not for that reason, only for the sake of the royal blood, that the Duke of Northumberland asked her in marriage for his son, Guildford Dudley. When they were married, the duke and Cranmer began to persuade the poor, sick, young king that it was his duty to leave his crown away from his sister Mary to Lady Jane, who would go on with the Reformation, while Mary would try to overthrow it. In truth, young Edward had no right to will away the crown; but he was only sixteen, and could only trust to what the archbishop and his council told him. So he signed the parchment they brought him, and after that he quickly grew worse.

The people grew afraid that Northumberland was shutting him up and misnsing him, and once he came to the window of his palace and looked out at them, to show he was alive; but he died only a fortnight later, and we

cannot guess what he would have been when he was grown up.

#### CHAPTER XXIX.

MARY I.

A.D. 1553-1558.

HE Duke of Northumberland kept King Edward's death a secret till he had proclaimed Jane queen of England. The poor girl knew that a great wrong was being done in her name. She wept bitterly, and begged that she might not be forced to accept the crown; but she could do nothing to prevent it, when her father and husband, and his father, all were bent on making her obey them; and so she had to sit as a queen in the royal apartments in the Tower of London.

But as soon as the news reached Mary, she set off riding toward London; and, as every one knew her to be the right queen, and no one would be tricked by Dudley, the whole of the people joined her, and even Northumberland was obliged to throw up his hat and cry "God save Queen Mary." Jane and her husband were safely kept, but Mary meant no harm by them if their friends would have been quiet. However, the people became discontented when Mary began to have the Latin service used again. and put Arehbishop Cranmer in prison for having favored Jane. showed in every way that she thought all her brother's advisers had done She wanted to be under the Pope again, and she engaged herself to marry the King of Spain, her cousin, Philip II. This was very foolish of her, for she was a middle-aged woman, pale, and low-spirited; and he was much younger, and of a silent, gloomy temper, so that every one was afraid of him. All her best friends advised her not, and the English hated the notion so much, that the little children played at the queen's wedding in their games, and always ended by pretending to hang the King of Spain. Northumberland thought this discontent gave another chance for his plan, and tried to raise the people in favor of Jane; but so few joined him that Mary very soon put them down, and beheaded Northumberland. thought, too, that the quiet of the country would never be secure while Jane lived, and so she consented to her being put to death. Jane behaved with beautiful firmness and patience. Her husband was led out first and beheaded, and then she followed. She was most good and innocent in herself, and it was for the faults of others that she suffered. Mary's sister, Elizabeth, was suspected, and sent to the Tower. She came in a boat on

the Thames to the Traitor's Gate; but, when she found where she was, she sat down on the stone steps, and said, "This is a place for traitors, and I am none." After a time she was allowed to live in the country, but closely watched.

Philip of Spain came and was married to Mary. She was very fond of him, but he was not very kind to her, and he had too much to do in his



RETURN OF CATHOLIC PRELATES UNDER MARY I.

other kingdoms to spend much time with her, so that she was always pining after him. Her great wish in choosing him was to be helped in bringing the country back to the old obedience to the Pope; and she succeeded in having the English Church reconciled, and received again to communion with Rome. But this displeased many of her subjects exceedingly. They thought they should be forbidden to read the Bible—they could not endure the Latin service—and those who had been taught by the foreigners fancied

that all proper reverence and beauty in church was a sort of idolatry. Some fled away into Holland and Germany, and others, who stayed, and taught loudly against the doctrines that were to be brought back again, were seized and thrown into prison.

Those bishops who had been foremost in the changes of course were the first to be tried for their teaching. The punishment was the dreadful one of being burnt alive, chained to a stake. Bishop Hooper died in this way at Gloucester, and Bishop Ridley and Bishop Latimer were both burnt at the same time at Oxford, encouraging one another to die bravely as martyrs for the truth, as they held it. Cranmer was in prison already for supporting Jane Grey, and he was condemned to death; but he was led to expect that he would be spared the fire if he would allow that the old faith, as Rome held it, was the right one. Paper after paper was brought, such as would please the queen and his judges, and he signed them all; but after all, it turned out that none would do, and that he was to be burnt in spite of them. Then he felt what a base part he had acted, and was ashamed when he thought how bravely his brethren had died on the same spot: and when he was chained to the stake and the fire lighted, he held his right hand over the flame to be burnt first, because it had signed what he did not really believe, and he cried out, "This unworthy hand!"

Altogether, about three hundred people were burnt in Queen Mary's reign for denying one or other of the doctrines that the Pope thought the right ones. It was a terrible time; and the queen, who had only longed to do right and restore her country to the Church, found herself hated and disliked by every one. Even the Pope, who had a quarrel with her husband, did not treat her warmly; and the nobles, who had taken possession of the abbey lands, were determined never to let her restore them. Her husband did not love her, or like England. However, he persuaded her to help him in a war with the French, with which England ought to have had nothing to do, and the consequence was that a brave French duke took the city of Calais, the very last possession of the English in France. Mary was so exceedingly grieved, that she said that when she died the name of Calais would be found written on her heart.

She was already ill, and there was a bad fever at the time, of which many of those she most loved and trusted had fallen sick. She died, in 1558, a melancholy and sorrowful woman, after reigning only five years.



# CHAPTER XXX.

ELIZABETH.

A.D. 1558-1587.

LL through Queen Mary's time, her sister Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn's daughter, had been in trouble. Those who held by Queen Mary, and maintained Henry's first marriage, said that his wedding with Anne was no real one, and so that Elizabeth ought not to reign; but then there was no one else to take in her stead, except the young Queen Mary of Scotland, wife to the French dauphin. All who wished for the Reformation, and dreaded Mary's persecutions, had hoped to see Elizabeth queen, and this had made Mary

much afraid of her; and she was so closely watched and guarded that once she even said she wished she was a milkmaid, to be left in peace. While she had been in the Tower she had made friends with another prisoner, Robert Dudley, brother to the husband of Lady Jane Grey, and she continued to like him better than any other person as long as he lived.

When Mary died, Elizabeth was twenty-five, and the English were mostly willing to have her for their queen. She had read, thought, and learnt a great deal; and she took care to have the advice of wise men, especially of the great Thomas Cecil, whom she made Lord Burleigh, and kept as her adviser as long as he lived. She did not always follow even his advice, however; but, whenever she did, it was the better for her. She knew Robert Dudley was not wise, so, though she was so fond of him, she never let him manage her affairs for her. She would have wished to marry him, but she knew her subjects would think this disgraceful, so she only made him Earl of Leicester: and her liking for him prevented her from ever bringing herself to accept any of the foreign princes who were always making proposals to her. Unfortunately he was not a good man, and did not make a good use of her favor, and he was much disliked by all the queen's best friends.

She was very fond of making stately journeys through the country. All the poor people ran to see her and admire her; but the noblemen who had to entertain her were almost ruined, she brought so many people who ate so much, and she expected such presents. These journeys were called Progresses. The most famous was to Lord Leicester's castle of Kenilworth, but



ELIZABETH SIGNING MARY'S DEATH-WARRANT.



he could quite afford it. He kept the clock's hands at twelve o'clock all the time, that it might always seem to be dinner-time!

Elizabeth wanted to keep the English Church a pure and true branch of the Church, free of the mistakes that had crept in before her father's time. So she restored the English Prayer-Book, and canceled all that Mary had done; the people who had gone into exile returned, and all the Protestants abroad reckoned her as on their side. But, on the other hand, the Pope would not regard her as queen at all, and cut her and her country off from the Church, while Mary of Scotland and her husband called themselves the true queen and king of England; and such of the English as believed the Pope to have the first right over the Church, held with him and Mary of They were called Roman Catholics, while Elizabeth and her friends were the real Catholics, for they held with the Church Universal of old; and it was the Pope who had broken off with them for not accepting his doctrines, not they with the Pope. The English who had lived abroad in Mary's time wanted to have much more altered, and to have churches and services much less beautiful and more plain than they were. But Elizabeth never would consent to this; and these people called themselves Puritans, and continued to object to whatever had been done in the old times—as if that made it wrong in itself.

Mary of Scotland was two years queen of France, and then her husband died, and she had to come back to Scotland. There most of the people had taken up doetrines that made them hate the sight of the clergy and services she had brought home from France; they called her an idolater, and would hardly bear that she should hear the old service in her own chapel. was one of the most beautiful and charming women who ever lived, and if she had been as true and good as she was lovely, nobody could have done more good; but the court of France at that time was a wicked place, and she had learnt much of the wickedness. She married a young nobleman named Henry Stewart, a cousin of her own, but he turned out foolish, selfish, and headstrong, and made her miserable; indeed, he helped to kill her secretary in her own bedroom before her eyes. She hated him so much at last, that there is only too much reason to fear that she knew of the plot, laid by some of her lords, to blow the poor man's house up with gunpowder, while he lay in his bed ill of small-pox. At any rate, she very soon married one of the very worst of the nobles who had committed the murder. subjects could not bear this, and they rose against her and made her prisoner, while her husband fled the country. They shut her up in a eastle in the middle of a lake, and obliged her to give up her crown to her little son, James VI.—a baby not a year old. However, her sweet words persuaded a boy who waited on her to steal the keys, and row her across the lake, and she was soon at the head of an army of her Roman Catholic subjects. They

were defeated, however, and she found no place safe for her in Scotland, so she fled across the Border to England. Queen Elizabeth hardly knew



THE DEATH-WARRANT DELIVERED TO MARY STUART.

what to do. She believed that Mary really had to do with Henry Stewart's death, but she could not bear to make such a crime known in a cousin and



MARY STUART LED TO EXECUTION.



queen; and what made it all more difficult to judge was, that the kings of France and Spain, and all the Roman Catholics at home, thought Mary ought to be queen instead of Elizabeth, and she might have been set up against England if she had gone abroad, or been left at large, while in Scotland she would have been murdered. The end of it was, that Elizabeth kept her shut up in different castles. There she managed to interest the English Roman Catholics in her, and get them to lay plots, which always Then the nobles were put to death, and Mary was more were found out. closely watched. This went on for nineteen years, and at last a worse plot than all was found out—for actually killing Queen Elizabeth. Her servants did not act honorably, for when they found out what was going on they pretended not to know, so that Mary might go on writing worse and worse things, and then, at last, the whole was made known. Mary was tried and sentenced to death, but Elizabeth was a long time making up her mind to sign the order for her execution, and at last punished the elerks who sent it off, as if it had been their fault.

So Queen Mary of Scotland was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, showing much bravery and piety. There are many people who still believe that she was really innocent of all that she was accused of, and that she only was ruined by the plots that were laid against her.



## CHAPTER XXXI.

ELIZABETH'S REIGN.

A.D. 1587-1602.

reign ever was more glorious or better for the people than Queen Elizabeth's. It was a time when there were many very great men living—soldiers, sailors, writers, poets—and they all loved and looked up to the queen as the mother of her country. There really was nothing she did love like the good of her people, and somehow they all felt and knew it, and "Good Queen Bess" had their hearts—though she was not always right, and had some very serious faults.

The worst of her faults was not telling truth. Somehow kings and rulers had, at that time, learnt to believe that when they were dealing with other countries anything was fair, and that it was not wrong to tell falsehoods to hide a secret, nor to make promises they never

meant to keep. People used to do so who would never have told a lie on their own account to their neighbor, and Lord Burleigh and Queen Elizabeth did so very often, and often behaved meanly and shabbily to people who had trusted to their promises. Her other fault was vanity. She was a little woman, with bright eyes, a rather hooked nose, and sandy hair, but she managed to look every inch a queen, and her eye, when displeased, was like a lion's. She had really been in love with Lord Leieester, and every now and then he hoped she would marry him; indeed, there is reason to fear that he had his wife secretly killed, in order that he might be able to wed the queen; but she saw that the people would not allow her to do so, and gave it up. But she liked to be courted. She allowed foreign princes to send her their portraits, rings, and jewels, and sometimes to come and see her, but she never made up her mind to take them. And as to the gentlemen at her own court, she liked them to make the most absurd and ridiculous compliments to her, calling her their sun and goddess, and her hair golden beams of the morning, and the like; and the older she grew the more of these fine speeches she required of them. Her dress—a huge hoop. a tall ruff all over lace, and jewels in the utmost profusion—was as splendid as it could be made, and in wonderful variety. She is said to have had three hundred gowns and thirty wigs. Lord Burleigh said of her that she was sometimes more than a man, and sometimes less than a woman. And so she was, when she did not like her ladies to wear handsome dresses.

One of the people who had wanted to marry her was her brother-in-law, Philip of Spain; but she was far too wise, and he and she were bitter enemies all the rest of their lives. His subjects in Holland had become Protestants, and he persecuted them so harshly that they broke away from him. They wanted Elizabeth to be their queen, but she would not, though she sent Lord Leicester to help them with an army. With him went his nephew, Sir Philip Sydney, the most good, and learned, and graceful gentleman at court. There was great grief when Sir Philip was struck by a cannon-ball on the thigh, and died after nine days' pain. It was as he was riding from the field, faint and thirsty, that some one had just brought him a cup of water, when he saw a poor soldier, worse hurt than himself, looking at it with longing eyes. He put it from him untasted, and said, "Take it, thy necessity is greater than mine."

After the execution of Mary of Scotland, Philip of Spain resolved to punish Elizabeth and the English, and force them back to obedience to the Pope. He fitted out an immense fleet, and filled it with fighting men. So strong was it that, as armada is the Spanish for a fleet, it was called the Invincible Armada. It sailed for England, the men expecting to burn and ruin all before them. But the English ships were ready. Little as they were, they hunted and tormented the big Spaniards all the way up the



FRANCIS DRAKE KNIGHTED BY ELIZABETH.

English Channel; and, just as the Armada had passed the Straits of Dover, there came on such dreadful storms that the ships were driven and broken before it, and wrecked all round the coasts—even in Scotland and Ireland—

and very few ever reached home again. The English felt that God had protected them with His wind and storm, and had fought for them.

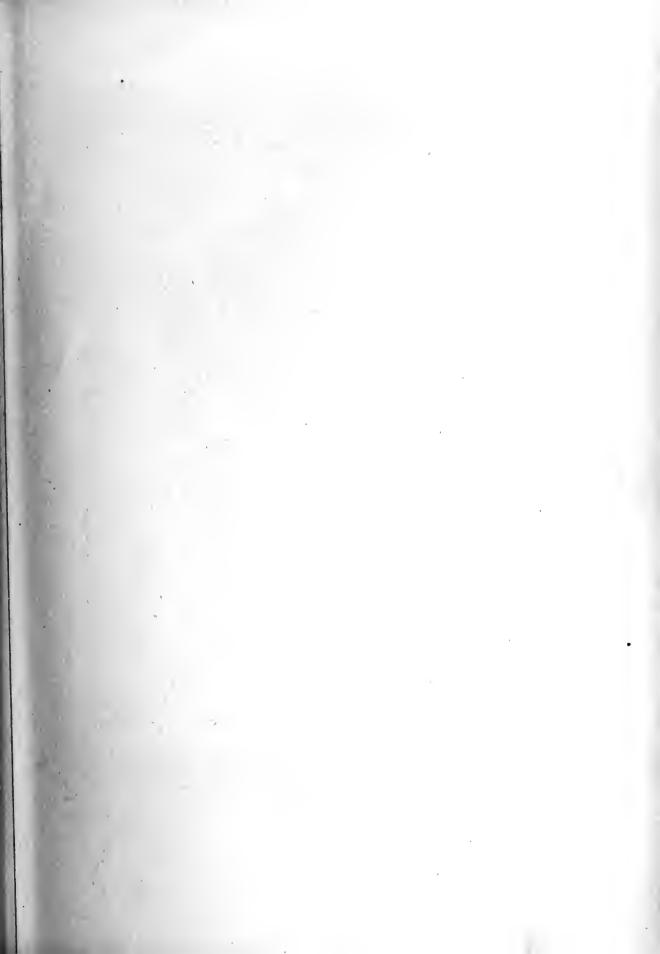
Lord Leicester died not long after, and the queen became almost equally fond of his stepson, the Earl of Essex, who was a brave, high-spirited young

man, only too proud.

The sailors of Queen Elizabeth's time were some of the bravest and most skilful that ever lived. Sir Francis Drake sailed round the world in the good ship Pelican, and when he brought her into the Thames the queen went to look at her. Sir Walter Raleigh was another great sailor, and a most courtly gentleman besides. He took out the first English settlers to North America, and named their new home Virginia—after the virgin queen—and he brought home from South America our good friend the potatoroot; and, also, he learnt there to smoke tobacco. The first time his servant saw this done in England, he thought his master must be on fire, and

threw a bucket of water over him to put it out. .

The queen valued these brave men much, but she liked none so well as Lord Essex, till at last he displeased her, and she sent him to govern Ireland. There he fell into difficulties, and she wrote angry letters, which made him think his enemies were setting her against him. So he came back without leave; and one morning came straight into her dressing chamber, where she was sitting, with her thin gray hair being combed, before she put on one of her thirty wigs, or painted her face. She was very angry, and would not forgive him, and he got into a rage too; and she heard he had said she was an old woman, crooked in temper as in person. What was far worse, he raised the Londoners to break out in a tumult to uphold him. He was taken and sent to the Tower, tried for treason, and found guilty of death. But the queen still loved him, and waited and waited for some message or token to ask her pardon. None came, and she thought he was too proud to beg for mercy. She signed the death-warrant, and Essex died on the block. But soon she found that he had really sent a ring she once had given him to a lady, who was to show it to her, in token that he craved her pardon. The ring had been taken by mistake to a cruel lady who hated him, and kept it back. But by and by this lady was sick to death. she repented, and sent for the queen and gave her the ring, and confessed her wiekedness. Poor Queen Elizabeth—her very heart was broken. said to the dying woman, "God may forgive you, but I cannot?" little more after that. She was old, and her strength failed her. Day after day she sat on a pile of eushions, with her finger on her lip, still growing weaker, and begging for the prayers the archbishop read her. And thus, she who had once been so great and spirited, sank into death, when seventy years old, in the year 1602.





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# CHAPTER ANATE

JAMES

A.D. 1602-1685

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## CHAPTER XXXII.

JAMES I.

A.D. 1602-1625.

FTER Queen Elizabeth's death, the next heir was James, the son of Mary of Scotland and of Henry Stewart. He was the sixth James who had been king of Scotland, and had reigned there ever since his mother had been driven away. He had been brought up very strictly by the Scottish Reformers, who had made him very learned, and kept him under great restraint; and all that he had undergone had tended to made him very awkward and strange in his manners. He was very timid, and could not bear to see a drawn

sword; and he was so much afraid of being murdered, that he used to wear a dress padded and stuffed out all over with wool, which made him look

even more clumsy than he was by nature.

The English did not much admire their new king, though it really was a great blessing that England and Scotland should be under the same king at last, so as to end all the long and bloody wars that had gone on for so many years. Still, the Puritans thought that, as James had been brought up in their way of thinking, they would be allowed to make all the changes that Queen Elizabeth had stopped; and the Roman Catholics recollected that he was Queen Mary's son, and that his Reformed tutors had not made his life very pleasant to him as a boy, so they had hopes from him.

But they both were wrong. James had really read and thought much, and was a much wiser man at the bottom than any one would have thought who had seen his disagreeable ways, and heard his silly way of talking. He thought the English Church was much more in the right than either of them, and he only wished that things should go on the same in England, and that the Scots should be brought to have bishops, and to use the prayers that Christians had used from the very old times, instead of each, minister praying out of his own head, as had become the custom. But though he could not change the ways of the Scots at once, he caused all the best scholars and elergymen in his kingdom to go to work to make the translation of the Bible as right and good as it could be.

Long before this was finished, however, some of the Roman Catholics had formed a conspiracy for getting rid of all the chief people in the king-

dom; and so, as they hoped, bringing the rest back to the Pope. There were good men among the Roman Catholics who knew that such an act would be horrible; but there were some among them who had learnt to hate every one that they did not reckon as of the right religion, and to believe that everything was right that was done for the cause of their Church. So these men agreed that on the day of the meeting of Parliament, when the king, with the queen and Prince of Wales, would all be meeting the lords and commons, they would blow the whole of them up



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

with gunpowder; and, while the country was all in confusion, the king dead, and almost all his lords and the chief country squires, they would take the king's younger children—Elizabeth or Charles, who were both quite little—and bring one up as a Roman Catholic to govern England.

They bought some cellars under the Houses of Parliament, and stored them with barrels of gunpowder, hidden by faggots; and the time was nearly come, when one of the lords, called Monteagle, received a letter that puzzled him very much, advising him not to attend the meeting of Parliament, since a sudden destruction would come upon all who would there be present, and yet so that they would not know the doer of it. No one knows

who wrote the letter, but most likely it was one of the gentlemen who had been asked to join in the plot, and, though he would not betray his friends, could not bear that Lord Monteagle should perish. Lord Monteagle took the letter to the council, and there, after puzzling over it and wondering if it were a joke, the king said gunpowder was a means of sudden destruction; and it was agreed that, at any rate, it would be safer to look into the vaults. A party was sent to search, and there they found all the powder ready prepared, and, moreover, a man with a lantern, one Guy Fawkes, who had undertaken to be the one to set fire to the train of gunpowder, hoping to escape before the explosion. However, he was seized in time, and was forced to make confession. Most of the gentlemen concerned fled into the country, and shut themselves up in a fortified house; but there, strange to say, a barrel of gunpowder chanced to get lighted, and thus many were much hurt in the very way they had meant to hurt others.

There was a great thanksgiving all over the country, and it became the custom that, on the fifth of November—the day when the gunpowder plot was to have taken effect—there should be bonfires and fireworks, and Guy Fawkes' figure burnt; but people are getting wiser now, and think it better

not to keep up the memory of old crimes and hatreds.

Henry, Prince of Wales, was a fine lad, fond of all that was good, but a little too apt to talk of wars, and of being like Henry V. He was very fond of ships and sailors, and delighted in watching the building of a grand vessel that was to take his sister Elizabeth across the sea, when she was to marry the Count Palatine of the Rhine. Before the wedding, however, Prince Henry fell suddenly ill and died.

King James was as fond of favorites as ever Elizabeth had been, though not of the same persons. One of the worst things he ever did was the keeping of Sir Walter Raleigh in the Tower for many years, and at last cutting off his head. Sir Walter had tried, when first James came, to set up a lady named Arabella Stewart to be queen; but if he was to be punished for that, it ought to have been directly, instead of keeping the sentence hanging over his head for years. The truth was that Sir Walter had been a great enemy to the Spaniards, and James wanted to please them, for he wished his son Charles to marry the daughter of the King of Spain. Charles wanted to see her first, and set off for Spain, in disguise, with the Duke of Buckingham, who was his friend, and his father's greatest favorite. But when he reached Madrid, he found that the princesses were not allowed to speak to any gentleman, nor to show their faces; and though he climbed over a wall to speak to her when she was walking in the garden, an attendant begged him to go away, or all her train would be punished. Charles went back disappointed, and, on his way through Paris, saw Henrietta Maria, the bright-eyed sister of the King of France, and set his heart on marrying her.

Before this was settled, however, King James was seized with an ague and died, in the year 1625. He was the first king of the family of Stewart, and a very strange person he was—wonderfully learned and exceedingly conceited; indeed, he liked nothing better than to be called the English Solomon. The worst of him was that, like Elizabeth, he thought kings and rulers might tell falsehoods and deceive. He called this kingcraft, and took this very bad sort of cunning for wisdom.



## CHAPTER XXXIII.

CHARLES I.

A.D. 1625-1649.



many of the great nobles had been killed in the Wars of the Roses, that the barons had lost all that great strength and power they had gained when they made King John sign Magna Carta. The kings got the power instead; and all through the reigns of the five Tudors, the sovereign had very little to hinder him from doing exactly as he pleased. But, in the meantime, the country squires and the great merchants who sat in the House of Commons had been getting richer and stronger, and read and thought more. As long as Queen Elizabeth lived they were contented, for they loved her and were proud of her, and she

knew how to manage them. She scolded them sometimes, but when she saw that she was really vexing them she always changed, and she had smiles and good words for them, so that she could really do what she pleased with them.

But James I. was a disagreeable man to have to do with; and, instead of trying to please them, he talked a great deal about his own power as a king, and how they ought to obey him: so that they were angered, and began to read the laws, and wonder how much power properly belonged to him. Now, when he died, his son Charles was a much pleasanter person; he was a gentleman in all his looks and ways, and had none of his father's awkward, ungainly tricks and habits. He was good and earnest, too, and there was nothing to take offence at in himself; so for some years all went on quietly, and there seemed to be a great improvement. But several things were against him. His friend, the Duke of Buckingham, was a proud, selfish man, who affronted almost every one, and made a bad use of the king's favor; and the people were also vexed that the king should marry a Roman Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria, who would not go to church with him, nor even let herself be crowned by an English archbishop.

It will be remembered that, in Queen Elizabeth's time, there were Puritans who would have liked to have the Prayer-book much more altered, and who fancied that every pious rule of old times must be wrong. They would not bow their heads at our blessed Lord's name; they did not like the cross in baptism, nor the ring in marriage; and they could not bear to see a clergyman in a surplice. In many churches they took their own way, and did just as they pleased. But under James and Charles matters changed. Dr. Laud, whom Charles made archbishop of Canterbury, saw that if things went on in this way people would forget all their reverence, and all the outward visible signs of the inward spiritual graces would be left off, and then how could the grace be received? So he had all the churches visited, and insisted on the parishioners setting them in order; and if a clergyman would not wear a surplice, nor make a cross on the baptized child's forehead, nor obey the other laws of the Prayer-book, he was punished.

The Puritans were greatly displeased. They fancied the king and Dr. Laud wanted to make them all Roman Catholics again; and a great many so hated these Church rules, that they took ship and went off to North America to found a colony, where they might set up their own religion as they liked it. Those who stayed continued to murmur and struggle against Laud.

There was another great matter of displeasure, and that was the way in which the king raised money. The right way is that he should call his Parliament together, and the House of Commons should grant him what he wanted. But there were other means. One was that every place in England should be called on to pay so much for ship money. This had begun when King Alfred raised his fleet to keep off the Danes; but it had come not to be spent on ships at all, but only to be money for the king to use. Another way that the kings had of getting money was from fines. People who committed some small offence, that did not come under the regular laws, were brought before the Council in a room at Westminster, that had a ceiling painted with stars—and so was called the Star Chamber—and there were sentenced, sometimes to pay heavy sums of money, sometimes to have their ears cut off. This Court of the Star Chamber had been begun in the days of Henry VII., and it is only a wonder that the English had borne it so long.

One thing Charles I. did that pleased his people, and that was sending help to the French Protestants, who were having their town of Rochelle besieged. But the English were not pleased that the command of the army was given to the Duke of Buckingham, his proud, insolent favorite. But Buckingham never went. As he was going to embark at Portsmouth, he

was stabbed to the heart by a man named Felton; nobody clearly knows

why.

Charles did not get on much better even when Buckingham was dead. Whenever he called a Parliament, fault was always found with him and with the laws. Then he tried to do without a Parliament; and, as he, of course, needed money, the calls for ship money came more often, and the fines in the Star Chamber became heavier, and more cases for them were hunted out. Then murmurs arose. Just then, too, he and Archbishop Laud were trying to make the Scots return to the Church, by giving them bishops and a Prayer-book. But the first time the Service was read in a church at Edinburgh, a fishwoman, named Jenny Geddes, jumped up in a rage and threw a three-legged stool at the clergyman's head. Some Scots fancied they were being brought back to Rome; others hated whatever was commanded in England. All these leagued together, and raised an army to resist the king; and he was obliged to call a Parliament once more, to get money enough to resist them.



#### CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

A.D. 1641-1649.

HEN Charles I. was obliged to call his Parliament, the House of Commons met, angered at the length of time that had passed since they had been called, and determined to use their opportunity. They speedily put an end both to the payment of ship money and to the Court of the Star Chamber; and they threw into prison the two among the king's friends whom they most disliked, namely, Archbishop Laud and the Earl of Strafford. The earl had been governor of Ireland, and had kept great order there, but severely;

and he thought that the king was the only person who ought to have any power, and was always advising the king to put down all resistance by the strong hand. He was thought a hard man, and very much hated; and when he was tried the Houses of Parliament gave sentence against him that he should be beheaded. Still, this could not be done without the king's warrant; and Charles at first stood out against giving up his faithful friend. But there was a great tumult, and the queen and her mother grew frightened,

and entreated the king to save himself by giving up Lord Strafford, until at last he consented, and signed the paper ordering the execution. It was a sad act of weakness and cowardice, and he mourned over it all the days of his life.



QUEEN HENRIETTA MARIA.

The Parliament only asked more and more, and at last the king thought he must put a check on them. So he resolved to go down to the House and cause the five members who spoke most against his power to be taken prisoners in his own presence. But he told his wife what he intended, and Henrietta Maria was so foolish as to tell Lady Carlisle, one of her ladies, and she sent warning to the five gentlemen, so that they were not in the

House when Charles arrived; and the Londoners rose up in a great mob. and showed themselves so angry with him, that he took the queen and his children away into the country. The queen took her daughter Mary to Holland, to marry the Prince of Orange; and there she bought muskets and gunpowder for her husband's army—for things had come to such a pass now that a civil war began. A civil war is the worst of all wars, for it is one between the people of the same country. There were two civil wars before. There were the Barons' wars, between Henry III. and Simon de Montfort, about the keeping of Magna Carta; and there were the wars of the Roses, to settle whether York or Lancaster should reign. This war between Charles I. and the Parliament was to decide whether the king or the House of Commons should be most powerful. Those who held with the king called themselves Cavaliers, but the friends of the Parliament called them Malignants; and they in turn nicknamed the Parliamentary party Roundheads, because they often chose not to wear their hair in the prevailing fashion, long and flowing on their shoulders, but cut short round their heads. Most of the Roundheads were Puritans, and hated the Prayer-book, and all the strict rules for religious worship that Archbishop Laud had brought in; and the Cavaliers, on the other hand, held by the bishops and the Prayer-Some of the Cavaliers were very good men indeed, and led holy and Christian lives, like their master the king, but there were others who were only bold, dashing men, careless and full of mirth and mischief; and the Puritans were apt to think all amusements and pleasures wrong, so that they made out the Cavaliers worse than they really were.

As it would be difficult to understand about all the battles, it is sufficient to say that the king's army was chiefly led by his nephew, Prince Rupert, the son of his sister Elizabeth. Rupert was a fiery, brave young man, who was apt to think a battle was won before it really was, and would ride after the people he had beaten himself, without waiting to see whether his help was wanted by the other captains; and so he did his uncle's cause

as much harm as good.

The king's party had been the most used to war, and they prospered the most at first; but, as the soldiers of the Parliament became more trained, they gained the advantage. One of the members of Parliament, a gentleman named Oliver Cromwell, soon showed himself to be a much better captain than any one else in England, and from the time he came to the chief command the Parliament always had the victory. The places of the three chief battles were Edgehill, Marston Moor, and Naseby. The first was doubtful, but the other two were great victories of the Roundheads. Just after Marston Moor, the Parliament put to death Archbishop Laud, though they could not find anything he had done against the law; and at the same time, they forbade the use of the Prayer-Book, and turned out all the parish

priests from the churches, putting in their stead men chosen after their own fashion, and not ordained by bishops. They likewise destroyed all they disliked in the churches—the painted glass, the organs, and the carvings; and when the Puritan soldiers took possession of a town or village, they would stable their horses in the churches, use the font for a trough, and shoot at the windows as marks.

After the battle of Naseby, King Charles was in such distress that he thought he would go to the Scots, remembering that, though he had offended them by trying to make them use the Prayer-book, he had been born among them, and he thought they would prefer him to the English. But when he came, the Scottish army treated him like a prisoner, and showed him very few honors; and at last they gave him up to the English Parliament for a great sum of money.

So Charles was a prisoner to his own subjects. This Parliament is called the Long Parliament, because it sat longer than any other Parliament ever did: indeed it had passed, with the King's consent, a resolution that it could not be dissolved.

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#### CHAPTER XXXV.

DEATH OF CHARLES I.

A.D. 1649-1651.

HE Long Parliament did not wish to have no king, only to make him do what they pleased; and they went on trying whether he would come back to reign according to their notions. He would have given up a great deal, but when they wanted him to declare that there should be no bishops in England he would never consent, for he thought that there could be no real Church without bishops, as our Lord Himself had appointed.

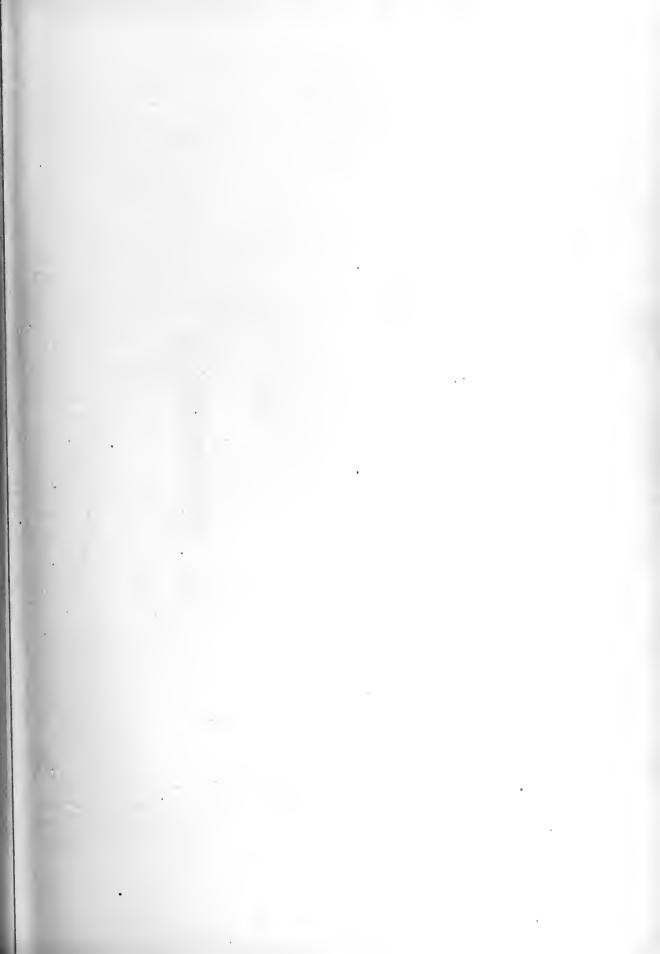
At last, after there had been much debating, and it was plain that it would never come to an end, Oliver Cromwell sent some of his officers to take King Charles into their hands, instead of the persons appointed by Parliament. So the king was prisoner to the army instead of to the Parliament.

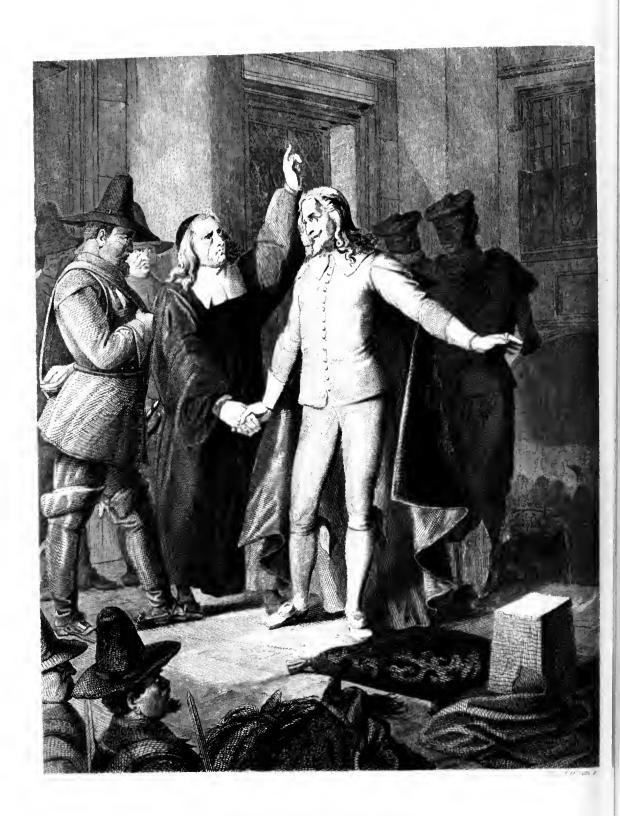
Cromwell was a very able man, and he saw that nobody could settle the difficulties about the law and the rights of the people but himself. No one can tell whether he wished to do right or to make himself great; but his heart could not have been set right or he would not have done so terrible an

act as he did. He saw that things never would be settled while the king lived, nor by the Parliament; so he sent one of his officers, named Pryde, to turn out all the members of Parliament who would not do his will, and then the fifty who were left appointed a court of officers and lawyers to try the king. Charles was brought before them; but, as they had no right to try him, he would not say a word in answer to them. Nevertheless, they sentenced him to have his head cut off. He had borne all his troubles in the most meek and patient way, forgiving all his enemies and praying for them: and he was ready to die in the same temper. His queen was in France. and all his children were safe out of England, except his daughter Elizabeth, who was twelve years old, and little Henry, who was five. They were brought to Whitehall Palace for him to see, the night before he was to die. He took the little boy on his knee, and talked a long time to Elizabeth, telling her what books to read and giving her his messages to her mother and brothers; and then he told little Henry to mark what he said, and to mind that he must never be set up as a king while his elder brothers, Charles and James were alive. The little boy said, among his tears, "I will be torn in pieces first." His father kissed and blessed the two children, and left them.

The next day was the 30th of January, 1649. The king was allowed to have Bishop Juxon to read and pray with him, and to give him the holy communion. After that, forgiving his enemies, and praying for them, he was led to the Banqueting House at Whitehall, and out through a window, on to a scaffold hung with black cloth. He said his last prayers, and the executioner cut off his head with one blow, and held it up to the people. He was buried at night, in St. George's Chapel at Windsor, by four faithful noblemen, but they were not allowed to use any service over his grave.

The Scots were so much shocked to find what their selling of their king had come to, that they invited his eldest son, Charles, a young man of nineteen, to come and reign over them, and offered to set him on the English throne again. Young Charles came; but they were so strict that they made his life very dull and weary, since they saw sin in every amusement. However, they kept their promise of marching into England, and some of the English cavaliers joined them; but Oliver Cromwell and his army met them at Worcester, and they were entirely beaten. Young King Charles had to go away with a few gentlemen, and he was so closely followed that they had to put him in charge of some woodmen named Penderel, who lived in Boscobel Forest. They dressed him in a rough leather suit like their own, and when the Roundhead soldiers came to search, he was hidden among the branches of an oak tree above their heads. Afterward, a lady named Jane Lane helped him over another part of his journey, by letting him ride on horseback before her as her servant; but, when she stopped at an inn, he was very near being found out, because he did not know how to turn the





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spit in the kitchen when the cook asked him. However, he and askely to Brighton, which was only a little village then, and a heat book him to France, where his mother was living.

In the meantime, his young sister and brother, Elizabeth and Henry, had been sent to the Isle of Wight, to Carisbroux (astle, Elizabeth was pining away with sorrow, and before long she was found dead, with her check reting on her open Bible. After this, little Henry was sent to be with his mother in France.

The eldest daughter, Mary, had been married, just so the war begate to the Prince of Orange, who lived in Holland, and was left a widow with one little son. James, Duke of York, the second brother, had at first bren in the keeping of a Parliamentary nobleman, with his trother and sister in London; but, during a game of hide-and-seek, he crept out of the garden. and met some friends, who dressed him in girls' ciothes and at he him to a ship in the Thames, which carried him to Holland. Little Henricha, the voungest, had been left, when only six weeks old, to the care of one of her mother's ladies. When she was nearly three, the lady did not the nit of safe to keep her any longer in England. So she stained her face well have brown, with walnut juice, to look like a gipsy, took the child a later back, and trudged to the coast. Little Harrietta could not speak plain, but she always called herself by a name she meant to be princess, and the lady as obliged to call her Piers, and pretend that she was a little box a real than soor child grew angry at being treated so differently from usual, and and so possibly could to make the strangers understand that she was no began However, at last she was safe across the sea, and was will begin there Paris, where the King of France, Queen Honrietta's my bear and to the poor exiles. The misfortune was, that the quest

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# CHAPTER XXXVI.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

A.D. 1649-1660.

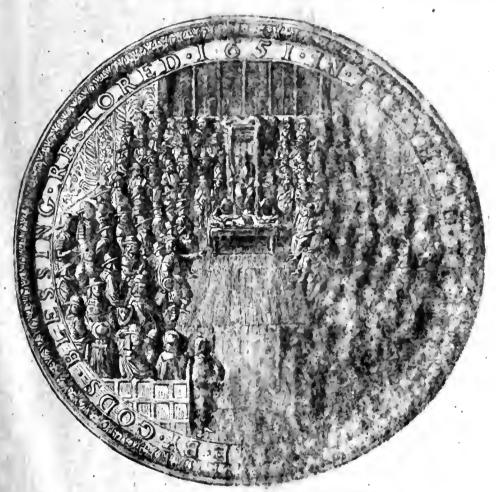
IVER Cromwell felt, as has been said, that there was no one who could set matters to rights as he could in England. He had shown that the country could not do without him, if it was to go on without the old government. Not only had he conquered and slain Charles I., and beaten that king's friends and those of his son in Scotland, but he had put down a terrible rising of the Irish, and suppressed them with much

more ernelty than he generally showed.

He found that the old Long Parliament did nothing but blunder and talk, so he marched into the House one day with a company of soldiers, and sternly ordered the members all off, calling out, as he pointed to the mace that lay before the Speaker's chair, "Take away that bauble." After that he called together a fresh Parliament; but there were very few members, and those only men who would do as he bade them. The Speaker was a leather-seller named Barebones, so that this is generally known as Barebones' Parliament. By these people he was named Lord Protector of England; and as his soldiers would still do anything for him, he reigned for five years, just as a king might have done, and a good king too.

It is hard to understand how a person can go on doing wrong, and really meaning to do right all the time, and think it is doing God's service; but there have been many people like that, and, as far as we can understand, Oliver Cromwell was one of them. He was a religious man; but he chose to make out his religion from the Bible for himself, though, in the judgment of many good people, he erred greatly in his opinions; and when he felt within himself the understanding how to rule better than king or Parliament, he went on to make himself ruler, thinking he was doing God's work—even though it led him through such sins as making war on the king, and putting him to death at last. He prayed often, and spoke much about religion; but he was very apt to make long speeches, that so confused the people who heard him that they let him have his own way, because they did not know what he was talking about. However, when he wanted to be obeyed, he was sharp and direct enough. He was by

more than he could help if he was to keep up his power, though, if course, they suffered a great deal, since they had fines laid upon them, and some forfeited their estates for having resisted the Parliament. Many had to live in Holland or France, because there was no safety for them in England, and their wives went backward and forward to their houses to collect their



THE GREAT SEAD OF 12004 OF TOWN LOS TIMES.

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no means a cruel or unmerciful man, and he did not persecute the Cavaliers more than he could help, if he was to keep up his power; though, of course, they suffered a great deal, since they had fines laid upon them, and some forfeited their estates for having resisted the Parliament. Many had to live in Holland or France, because there was no safety for them in England, and their wives went backward and forward to their homes to collect their



THE GREAT SEAL OF ENGLAND (CROMWELL'S TIME).

rents, and obtain something to live upon. The bishops and elergy had all been driven out, and in no church was it allowable to use the Prayer-book; so there used to be secret meetings in rooms, or vaults, or in woods, where the prayers could be used as of old, and the holy sacrament administered.

For five years Cromwell was Lord Protector, but in the year 1658 he died, advising that his son Richard should be chosen Protector in his stead. Richard Cromwell was a kind, amiable gentleman, but not clever or strong

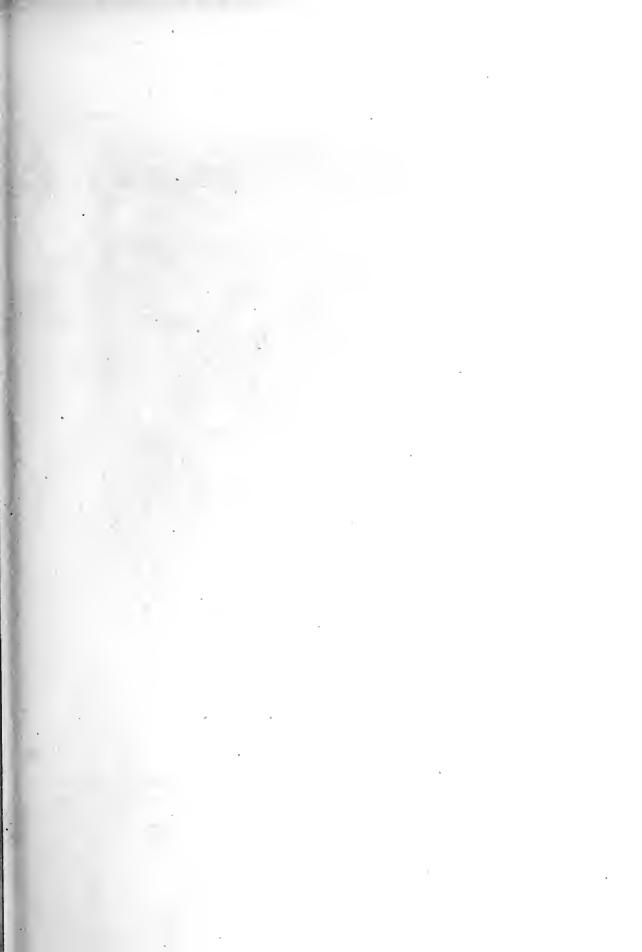
like his father, and he very soon found that to govern England was quite beyond his power; so he gave up, and went to live at his own home again, while the English people gave him the nickname of Tumble-down-Dick.

No one seemed well to know what was to be done next; but General Monk, who was now at the head of the army, thought the best thing



GENERAL MONK.

possible would be to bring back the king. A new Parliament was elected, and sent an invitation to Charles II. to come back again and reign like his forefathers. He accepted it; the fleet was sent to fetch him, and on the 29th of May, 1660, he rode into London between his brothers, James and Henry. The streets were dressed with green boughs, the windows hung with tapestry, and every one showed such intense joy and delight, that the king





Selmar Hess, Publisher, New York.

said he could not think why he and over a country one was so glad to see him back were listed to be a country or the country of the country o

But the joy of his return was the Princess of Orange, and of his two L.

Mary left a son, William, Prince of the contract of t

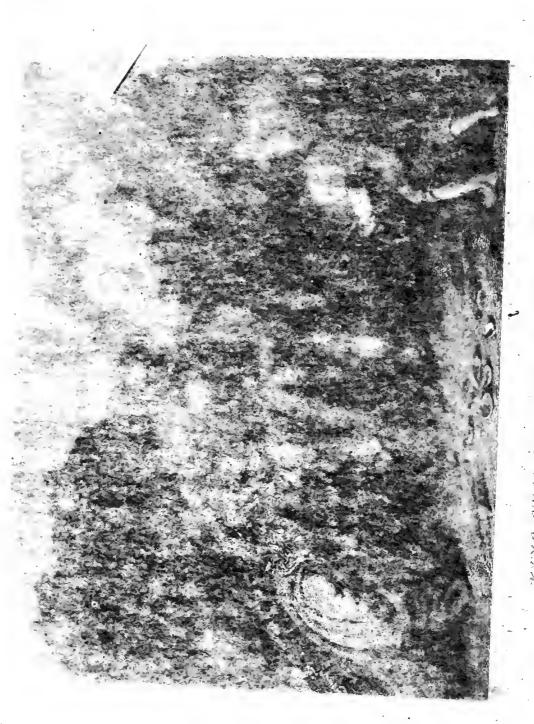
The bishops were restored, and,

Laud had been beheaded, good Junes
his death, was made archbishop in the
put into the parishes to act as clergy
real original parish priest; but if he were
were told that they might stay, if the
and obey the Prayer-book. Some did
keeping the parsonages, and paying a
but those who were the most really in
turned out—but only as they had ture
twelve years before.

All Oliver Cromwell's army was homes, except one regiment which are would not disband, and when Charles I'd them as his guards. This was the last army of men, whose whole business I is being called from his work when he

Charles II. promised pardon to all the stall who had been actually concern





KING CHARLES II LANDUNG AT DOVER

said he could not think why he should have stayed away so long, since every one was so glad to see him back again.

But the joy of his return was clouded by the deaths of his sister Mary, the Princess of Orange, and of his brother Henry, who was only just twenty. Mary left a son, William, Prince of Orange, of whom more hereafter.

The bishops were restored, and, as there had been no archbishop since Laud had been beheaded, good Juxon, who had attended King Charles at his death, was made archbishop in his room. The persons who had been put into the parishes to act as clergymen, were obliged to give place to the real original parish priest; but if he were dead, as was often the case, they were told that they might stay, if they would be ordained by the bishops and obey the Prayer-book. Some did so, some made an arrangement for keeping the parsonages, and paying a curate to take the service in church; but those who were the most really in earnest gave up everything, and were turned out—but only as they had turned out the real elergymen ten or twelve years before.

All Oliver Cromwell's army was broken up, and the men sent to their homes, except one regiment which came from Coldstream in Scotland. These would not disband, and when Charles II. heard it, he said he would take them as his guards. This was the beginning of there being always a regular army of men, whose whole business it is to be soldiers, instead of any man being called from his work when he is wanted.

Charles II. promised pardon to all the rebels, but he did try and execute all who had been actually concerned in condemning his father to death.



# CHAPTER XXXVII.

CHARLES 11.

A.D. 1660-1685.

is sad to have to say that, after all his troubles, Charles II. disappointed everybody. Some of these disappointments could not be helped, but others were his own fault. The Puritan party thought, after they had brought him home again, he should have been more favorable to them, and grumbled at the restoration of the clergymen and of the Prayer-book. The Cavaliers thought that, after all they had gone through for him and his father, he ought to have rewarded them more; but he said truly enough, that if he had made a nobleman of every one

who had deserved well of him, no place but Salisbury Plain would have been big enough for the House of Lords to meet upon. Then those gentlemen who had got into debt to raise soldiers for the king's service, and had paid fines, or had to sell their estates, felt it hard not to have them again; but when a Roundhead gentleman had honestly bought the property, it would have been still more unjust to turn him out. These two old names of Cavaliers and Roundheads began to turn into two others even more absurd. The Cavalier set came to be called Tories, an Irish name for a robber, and the Puritans got the Scotch name of Whigs, which means buttermilk.

It would have taken a very strong, wise, and good man to deal rightly with two such different sets of people; but though Charles II. was a very clever man, he was neither wise nor good. He could not bear to vex himself, nor anybody else; and, rather than be teased, would grant almost anything that was asked of him. One of his witty courtiers once wrote upon his bedroom door—

"Here lies our sovereign lord, the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one,"

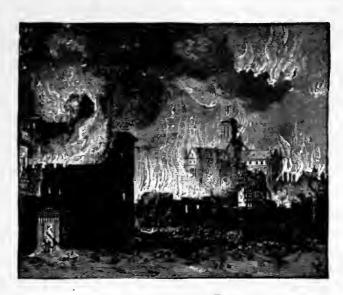
He was so bright and lively, and made such droll, good-natured answers, that every one liked him who came near him; but he had no steady principle, only to stand easy with everybody, and keep as much power for him-

self as he could without giving offence. He loved pleasure much better than duty, and kept about him a set of people who amused him, but were a disgrace to his court. They even took money from the French king to persuade Charles against helping the Dutch in their war against the French. The Dutch went to war with the English upon this, and there were many terrible sea-fights, in which James, Duke of York, the king's brother, showed himself a good and brave sailor.

The year 1665 is remembered as that in which there was a dreadful sickness in London, called the plague. People died of it often after a very short illness, and it was so infectious that it was difficult to escape it. When a person in a house was found to have it, the door was fastened up and marked with a red cross in chalk, and no one was allowed to go out or in; food was

set down outside to be fetched in, and carts came round to take away the dead, who were all buried together in long ditches. The plague was worse in the summer and autumn; as winter came on more recovered and fewer sickened, and at last this frightful sickness was ended; and, by God's good mercy, it has never since that year come to London.

The next year, 1666, there was a fire in London, which burnt down



THE GREAT LONDON FIRE.

whole streets, with their churches, and even destroyed St. Paul's Cathedral. Perhaps it did good by burning down the dirty old houses and narrow streets where the plague might have lingered, but it was a fearful misfortune. It was only stopped at last by blowing up a space by gunpowder all round it, so that the flames might have no way to pass on. The king and his brother came and were very helpful in giving orders about this, and in finding shelter for the many poor, homeless people.

There was a good deal of disturbance in Scotland when the king wanted to bring back the bishops and the Prayer-book. Many of the Scots would not go to church, and met on hills and moors to have their prayers in their own way. Soldiers were sent to disperse them, and there was much fierce, bitter feeling. Archbishop Sharpe was dragged out of his carriage and

killed, and then there was a civil war, in which the king's men prevailed; but the Whigs were harshly treated, and there was great discontent.

The country was much troubled because the king and queen had no children: and the Duke of York was a Roman Catholic. A strange story was got up that there was what was called a popish plot for killing the king, and putting James on the throne. Charles himself laughed at it, for he knew every one liked him and disliked his brother: "No one would kill me to make you king, James," he said; but in his easy, selfish way, when he found that all the country believed in it, and wanted to have the men they fancied guilty put to death, he did not try to save their lives.

Soon after this false plot, there was a real one called the Rye-house Plot. Long ago, the king had pretended to marry a girl named Lucy Waters, and they had a son whom he had made Duke of Monmouth, but who could not reign because there had been no right marriage. However, Lord Russell and some other gentlemen, who ought to have known better, so hated the idea of the Duke of York being king, that they joined in the Rye-house Plot for killing the duke, and forcing the king to make Monmouth his heir. Some of the worser sort, who had joined them, even meant to shoot Charles and James both together, on the way to the Newmarket races. However, the plot was found out, and the leaders were put to death. Lord Russell's wife, Lady Raehel, sat by him all the time of his trial, and was his great comfort to the last. Monmouth was pardoned, but fled away to Holland.

The best thing to be said of Charles II. was that he made good men bishops, and he never was angry when they spoke out boldly about his wicked ways; but then, he never tried to leave them off, and he spent the very last Sunday of his life among his bad companions, playing at cards and listening to idle songs. Just after this came a stroke of apoplexy, and, while he lay dying on his bed, he sent for a Roman Catholic priest, and was received into the Church of Rome, in which he had really believed most of his life—though he had never dared own it, for fear of losing his crown. So, as he was living a lie, of course the fruits showed themselves in his selfish, wasted life.

It was in this reign that two grand books were written. John Milton, a blind scholar and poet, who, before he lost his sight, had been Oliver Cromwell's secretary, wrote his Paradise Lost, or rather dictated it to his daughters; and John Bunyan, a tinker, who had been a Puritan preacher, wrote the Pilgrim's Progress.



### CHAPTER XXXVIII.

#### JAMES II.

A.D. 1685-1688.

AMES II. had, at least, been honest in openly joining the Church in which he believed; but the people disliked and distrusted him, and he had not the graces of his brother to gain their hearts with, but was grave, sad, and stern.

The Duke of Monmouth came across from Holland, and was proclaimed king in his uncle's stead at Exeter. Many people in the West of England joined him, and at Taunton, in Somersetshire, he was received by rows of little girls standing by the

gate in white frocks, strewing flowers before him. But at Sedgemoor he was met by the army, and his friends were routed; he himself fled away, and at last was caught hiding in a ditch, dressed in a laborer's smock frock, and with his pockets full of peas from the fields. He was taken to London, tried, and executed. He did not deserve much pity, but James ought not to have let the people who had favored him be cruelly treated. Sir George Jeffreys, the chief justice, was sent to try all who had been concerned, from Winchester to Exeter; and he hung so many, and treated all so savagely, that his progress was called the Bloody Assize. Even the poor little maids at Taunton were thrown into a horrible, dirty jail, and only released on their parents paying a heavy sum of money for them.

This was a bad beginning for James's reign: and the English grew more angry and suspicious when they saw that he favored Roman Catholics more than any one else, and even put them into places that only clergymen of the Church of England could fill. Then he put forth a decree, declaring that a person might be chosen to any office in the State, whether he were a member of the English Church or no; and he commanded that every clergyman should read it from his pulpit on Sunday mornings. Archbishop Sancroft did not think it a right thing for clergymen to read, and he and six more bishops presented a petition to the king against being obliged to read it. One of these was Thomas Ken, Bishop of Bath and Wells, who wrote the morning hymn, "Awake, my soul, and with the sun," and the evening hymn, "All praise to Thee, my God, this night." Instead of listening to their petition, the king had all the seven bishops sent to the Tower, and tried for libel—that is, for malicious writing. All England was full of anxiety, and

when at last the jury gave a verdict of "not guilty," the whole of Londonrang with shouts of joy, and the soldiers in their camp shouted still louder.

This might have been a warning to the king: for he had thought that, as he paid the army, they were all on his side, and would make the people bear whatever he pleased. The chief comfort people had was in thinking their troubles would only last during his reign: for his first wife, an Englishwoman, had only left him two daughters, Mary and Anne, and Mary was married to her cousin, William, Prince of Orange, who was a great enemy of the King of France and of the Pope; and Anne's husband, Prince George,



DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

brother to the King of Denmark, was a Protestant. He was a dull man, and people laughed at him—because, whenever he heard any news, he never said anything but "Est-il possible?" Is it possible? But he had a little son, of whom there was much hope.

But James had married again, Mary Beatrice d'Este, an Italian princess; and, though none of her babies had lived before, at last she had a little son who was healthy and life-like, and who was christened James. Poor little boy! Every one was so angry and disappointed that he should have come into the world at all, that a story was put about that he was not the son of the king and queen, but a strange baby who had been carried into the



THE PRINCE OF ORANGE AT TOULOUSE.



queen's room in a warming-pan, because James was resolved to prevent Mary

and William from reigning.

Only silly people could believe such a story as this; but all the Whigs, and most of the Tories, thought in earnest that it was a sad thing for the country to have a young heir to the throne brought up to be a Roman Catholic, and to think it right to treat his subjects as James was treating them. Some would have been patient, and have believed that God would bring it right, but others, who had never thought much of the rights of kings and duties of subjects, were resolved to put a stop to the evils they expected: and, knowing what was the state of people's minds, William of Orange set forth from Holland, and landed at Torbay. Crowds of people came to meet him, and to call on him to deliver them. It was only three years since the Bloody Assize, and they had not forgotten it in those parts. King James heard that one person after another had gone to the Prince of Orange, and he thought it not safe for his wife and child to be any longer in England. So, quietly, one night he put them in charge of a French nobleman who had been visiting him, and who took them to the Thames, where, after waiting in the dark under a church wall, he brought them a boat, and they reached a ship which took them safely to France.

King James stayed a little longer. He did not mind when he heard that Prince George of Denmark had gone to the Prince of Orange, but only laughed, and said "Est-il possible?" but when he heard his daughter Anne, to whom he had always been kind, was gone too, the tears came into his eyes, and he said, "God help me, my own children are deserting me." He would have put himself at the head of the army, but he found that if he did so, he was likely to be made prisoner and carried to William. So he disguised himself and set off for France; but at Faversham, some people who took him for a Roman Catholic priest seized him, and he was sent back to London. However, as there was nothing the Prince of Orange wished so little as to keep him in captivity, he was allowed to escape again, and this time he safely reached France, where he was very kindly welcomed, and had

the palace of St. Germain given him for a dwelling-place.

It was on the 4th of November, 1688, that William landed, and the change that now took place is commonly called the English Revolution.

We must think of the gentlemen, during these reigns, as going about in very fine laced and ruffled coats, and the most enormous wigs. The Roundheads had short hair and the Cavaliers long: so people were ashamed to have short hair, and wore wigs to hide it if it would not grow, till everybody came to have shaven heads, and monstrous wigs in great curls on their shoulders; and even little boys' hair was made to look as like a wig as possible. The barber had the wig every morning to fresh curl, and make it white with hair powder, so that every one might look like an old man, with a huge quantity of white hair.

# CHAPTER XXXIX.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

A.D. 1679-1702.

EN James II. proved to be entirely gone, the Parliament agreed to offer the crown to William of Orange—the next heir after James's children—and Mary, his wife, James's eldest daughter; but not until there had been new conditions made, which would prevent the kings from ever being so powerful again as they had been since the time of Henry VII. Remember, Magna Carta, under King John, gave the power to the nobles. They lost it by the wars of the Roses, and the Tudor kings gained it; but the Stewart kings

could not keep it, and the House of Commons became the strongest power in the kingdom, by the Revolution of 1688. The House of Commons is made up of persons chosen—whenever there is a general election—by the men who have a certain amount of property in each county and large town. There must be a fresh election, or choosing, again every seven years; also, whenever the sovereign dies; and the sovereign can dissolve the Parliament -that is, break it up-and have a fresh election whenever it is thought right. But above the House of Commons stands the House of Lords, or Peers. These are not chosen, but the eldest son, or next heir of each lord, succeeds to his seat upon his death; and fresh peerages are given as rewards to great generals, great lawyers, or people who have deserved well of their country. When a law has to be made, it has first to be agreed to by a majority—that is, the larger number—of the Commons, then by a majority of the Lords, and lastly, by the king or queen. The sovereign's council are called the ministers, and if the Houses of Parliament do not approve of their way of carrying on the government they vote against their proposals, and this generally makes them resign, that others may be chosen in their place who may please the country better.

This arrangement has gone on ever since William and Mary came in. However, James II. still had many friends, only they had been out of reach at the first alarm. The Latin word for James is Jacobus, and, therefore, they were called Jacobites. All Roman Catholics were, of course, Jacobites; and there were other persons who, though grieved at the king's conduct, did not think it right to rise against him and drive him away; and, having

taken an oath to obey him, held that it would be wrong to swear obedience to any one else while he was alive. Archbishop Sancroft was one of these. He thought it wrong in the new queen, Mary, to consent to take her father's place; and when she sent to ask his blessing, he told her to ask her father's first, as, without that, his own would do her little good. Neither he nor Bishop Ken, and some other bishops, nor a good many more of the clergy, would take the oaths to William, or put his name instead of that of James in the prayers at church. They rather chose to be turned out of their



KING JAMES AT THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE,

bishoprics and parishes, and to live in poverty. They were called the non-jurors, or not-swearers.

Louis, King of France, tried to send James back, and gave him the service of his fleet; but it was beaten by Admiral Russell, off Cape La Hogue. Poor James could not help crying out, "See my brave English sailors! One of Charles's old officers, Lord Dundee, raised an army of Scots in James's favor, but he was killed just as he had won the battle of Killie-crankie; and there was no one to take up the cause just then, and the Scotch Whigs were glad of the change.

Most of James's friends, the Roman Catholics, were in Ireland, and Louis lent him an army with which to go thither and try to win his crown back. He got on pretty well in the South, but in the North—where Oliver Crom-

well had given lands to many of his old soldiers—he met with much more resistance. At Londonderry, the apprentice boys shut the gates of the town and barred them against him. A clergyman named George Walker took the command of the city, and held it out for a hundred and five days against him, till every one was nearly starved to death—and at last help came from England. William himself came to Ireland, and the father and son-in-law met in battle on the banks of the Boyne on the 1st of July, 1690. James was routed; and large numbers of the Irish Protestants have ever since kept the 1st of July as a great holiday—commemorating the victory by wearing orange lilies and orange-colored scarfs.

James was soon obliged to leave Ireland, and his friends there were severely punished. In the meantime, William was fighting the French in Holland—as he had done nearly all his life—while Mary governed the kingdom at home. She was a handsome, stately lady, and was much respected; and there was great grief when she died of the small-pox, never having had any children. It was settled upon this that William should go on reigning as long as he lived, and then that Princess Anne should be queen; and if she left no children, that the next after her should be the youngest daughter of Elizabeth, daughter of James I. Her name was Sophia, and she was married to Ernest of Brunswick, Elector of Hanover. It was also settled that no Roman Catholic, nor even any one who married a Roman Catholic,

could ever be on the English throne.

Most of the Tories disliked this Act of Settlement; and nobody had much love for King William, who was a thin, spare man, with a large, hooked nose, and very rough, sharp manners-perhaps the more sharp because he was never in good health, and suffered terribly from the asthma. However, he managed to keep all the countries under him in good order, and he was very active, and always at war with the French. Towards the end of his reign a fresh quarrel began, in which all Europe took part. The King of Spain died without children, and the question was who should reign after him. The King of France had married one sister of this king, and the Emperor of Germany was the son of her aunt. One wanted to make his grandson king of Spain, the other his son, and so there was a great war. William III. took part against the French-as he had always been their enemy; but just as the war was going to begin, as he was riding near his palace of Hampton Court, his horse trod into a mole-hill, and he fell, breaking his collar bone: and this hurt his weak chest so much that he died in a few days, in the year 1702. The Jacobites were very glad to be rid of him, and used to drink the health of the "little gentleman in a black velvet coat," meaning the mole which had caused his death.

#### CHAPTER XL.

ANNE.

A.D. 1702-1714.

UEEN Anne, the second daughter of James II., began to reign on the death of William III. She was a well-meaning woman, but very weak and silly; and any person who knew how to manage her could make her have no will of her own. The person who had always had such power over her was Sarah Jennings, a lady in her train, who had married an officer named John Churchill. As this gentleman had risen in the army, he proved to be one of the most able generals who ever

lived. He was made a peer, and, step by step came to be Duke of Marlborough. It was he and his wife who, being Whigs, had persuaded Anne to desert her father; and, now she was queen, she did just as they pleased. The duchess was mistress of the robes, and more queen at home than Anne was; and the duke commanded the army which was sent to fight against the French, to decide who should be king of Spain. An expedition was sent to Spain, which gained the rock of Gibraltar, and this has been kept by the English ever since.

Never were there greater victories than were gained by the English and German forces together, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy, who commanded the Emperor's armies. The first and greatest battle of them all was fought at Blenheim, in Bavaria, when the French were totally defeated, with great loss. Marlborough was rewarded by the queen and nation buying an estate for him, which was called Blenheim, where woods were planted so as to imitate the position of his army before the battle, and a grand house built and filled with pictures recording his adventures. The other battles were all in the Low Countries—at Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. The city of Lisle was taken after a long siege, and not a summer went by without tidings coming of some great victory, and the queen going in a state coach to St. Paul's Cathedral to return thanks for it.

But all this glory of her husband made the Duchess of Marlborough more and more proud and overbearing. She thought the queen could not do without her, and so she left off taking any trouble to please her; nay, she would sometimes scold her more rudely than any real lady would do to any woman, however much below her in rank. Sometimes she brought the poor queen to tears; and on the day on which Anne went in state to St. Panl's, to return thanks for the victory of Ondenarde, she was seen to be crying all the way from St. James's Palace in her coach, with the six cream-



QUEEN ANNE.

colored horses, because the duchess had been scolding her for putting on her jewels in the way she liked best, instead of in the duchess's way.

Now, Duchess Sarah had brought to the palace, to help to wait on the queen, a poor cousin of her own, named Abigail Masham, a much more smooth and gentle person, but rather deceitful. When the mistress of the robes was nukind and insolent, the queen used to complain to Mrs. Masham; and by and by Abigail told her how to get free. There was a gentleman, well known to Mrs. Masham—Mr. Harley, a member of Parliament and a Tory, and she brought him in by the back-stairs to see the queen, without the duchess knowing it. He undertook, if the queen would stand by him, to be her minister, and to turn out the Churchills and their Whig friends, send away the tyrant duchess, and make peace, so that the duke might not be wanted any more. In fact, the war had gone on quite long enough: the power of the King of France was broken, and he was an old man, whom it was cruel to press further; but this was not what Anne cared about so much as getting free of the duchess. There was great anger and indignation

among all the Whigs at the breaking off the war in the midst of so much glory; and, besides, the nation did not keep its engagements to the others with whom it had allied itself. Marlborough himself was not treated as a man deserved who had won so much honor for his country, and he did not keep his health many years after his fall. Once, when he felt his mind getting weak, he looked up at his own picture at Blenheim, taken when he was one of the handsomest, most able, and active men in Europe, and said sadly, "Ah! that was a man."

Mr. Harley was made Earl of Oxford, and managed the queen's affairs for her. He and the Tories



THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

did not at all like the notion of the German family of Brunswick—Sophia and her son George—who were to reign next, and they allowed the queen to look toward her own family a little more. Her father had died in exile, but there remained the young brother whom she had disowned, and whom the French and the Jacobites called King James III. If he would have joined the English Church, Anne would have gladly invited him, and many of the English would have owned him as the right king; but he was too honest to give up his faith, and the queen could do nothing for him.

Till her time the Scots—though since James I. they had been under the same king as England—had had a separate Parliament, Lords and Commons, who sat at Edinburgh; but in the reign of Queen Anne the Scottish Parliament was united to the English one, and the members of it had come to

Westminster. This made many Scotsmen so angry that they became Jacobites; but as everybody knew that the queen was a gentle, old, well-meaning lady, nobody wished to disturb her, and all was quiet as long as she lived, so that her reign was an unusually tranquil one at home, though there were such splendid victories abroad. It was a time, too, when there were almost as many able writers as in Queen Elizabeth's time. The two books written at that day, which are the best known, are Robinson Crusoc, written by Daniel Defoe, and Alexander Pope's translation of Homer's Iliad.

Anne's Tory friends did not make her happy; they used to quarrel among themselves and frightened her: and after one of their disputes she had a stroke, and soon died of it, in the year 1714.

It was during Anne's reign that it became the fashion to drink tea and coffee. One was brought from China, and the other from Arabia, not very long before, and they were very dear indeed. The ladies used to drink tea out of little cups of egg-shell china, and the clever gentlemen, who were called the wits, used to meet and talk at coffee-houses, and read newspapers, and discuss plays and poems; also, the first magazine was then begun. It was called "The Spectator," and was managed by Mr. Addison. It came out once a week, and laughed at or blamed many of the foolish and mischievous habits of the time. Indeed it did much to draw people out of the bad ways that had come in with Charles II.



## CHAPTER XLI.

GEORGE I.

A.D. 1714-1725.

HE Electress Sophia, who had always desired to be queen of England, had died a few months before Queen Anne; and her son George, who liked his own German home much better than the trouble of reigning in a strange country, was in no hurry to come, and waited to see whether the English would not prefer the young James Stewart. But as no James arrived, George set off, rather unwillingly, and was received in London in a dull kind of way. He hardly knew any English, and was obliged sometimes to talk bad Latin and some-

times French, when he consulted with his ministers. He did not bring a queen with him, for he had quarreled with his wife, and shut her up in a castle in Germany; but he had a son, also named George, who had a very clever, handsome wife—Caroline of Anspach, a German princess; but the king was jealous of them, and generally made them live abroad.

Just when it was too late, and George I. had thoroughly settled into his kingdom, the Jacobites in the North of England and in Scotland began to make a stir, and invited James Stewart over to try to gain the kingdom. The Jacobites used to call him James III., but the Whigs called him the Pretender; and the Tories used, by way of a middle course, to call him the Chevalier—the French word for a knight, as that he certainly was, whether he were king or pretender. A white rose was the Jacobite mark, and the Whigs still held to the orange lily and orange ribbon, for the sake of William of Orange.

The Jacobite rising did not come to any good. Two battles were fought between the king's troops and the Jacobites—one in England and the other in Scotland—on the very same day. The Scottish one was at Sheriff-muir, and was so doubtful, that the old Scottish song about it ran thus—

Some say that we won,
And some say that they won,
Some say that none won
At a', man;

But of one thing I'm sure, That at Sheriff-muir A battle there was, Which I saw, man. And we ran, and they ran,
And they ran, and we ran,
And we ran, and they ran—
Awa, man.

The English one was at Preston, and in it the Jacobites were all defeated and made prisoners; so that when their friend the Chevalier landed in Scotland, he found that nothing could be done, and had to go back again to Italy, where he generally lived, under the Pope's protection; and where he married a Polish princess, and had two sons, whom he named Charles

Edward and Henry.

This rising of the Jacobites took place in the year 1715, and is, therefore, generally called the Rebellion of the Fifteen. The chief noblemen who were engaged in it were taken to London to be tried. Three were beheaded; one was saved upon his wife's petition; and one, the Earl of Nithsdale, by the cleverness of his wife. She was allowed to go and see him in the Tower, and she took a tall lady in with her, who contrived to wear a double set of outer garments. The friend went away, after a time; and then, after waiting till the guard was changed, Lady Nithsdale dressed her husband in the clothes that had been brought in: and he, too, went away, with the hood over his face and a handkerchief up to his eyes, so that the guard might take him for the other lady, crying bitterly at parting with the earl. The wife, meantime, remained for some time, talking and walking up and down as heavily as she could, till the time came when she would naturally be obliged to leave him-when, as she passed by his servant, she told him that "My lord would not be ready for the candles just yet,"-and then left the Tower, and went to a little lodging in a back street, where she found her husband, and where they both lay hid while the search for Lord Nithsdale was going on, and where they heard the knell tolling when his friends, the other lords, were being led out to have their heads cut off. Afterward, they made their escape to France, where most of the Jacobites who had been concerned in the rising were living, as best they could, on small means—and some of them by becoming soldiers of the King of France.

England was prosperous in the time of George I., and the possessions of the country in India were growing, from a merchant's factory here and there, to large lands and towns. But the English never liked King George, nor did he like them; and he generally spent his time in his own native country of Hanover. He was taking a drive there in his coach, when a letter was thrown in at the window. As he was reading it, a sudden stroke of apoplexy came on, and he died in a few hours' time. No one ever knew what was in the letter, but some thought it was a letter reproaching him with his cruelty to his poor wife, who had died in her prison about eight months before. He died in the year 1725.

Gentlemen were leaving off full-bottomed wigs now, and wearing smaller ones; and younger men had their own hair powdered, and tied up with ribbon in a long tail behind, called a queue. Ladies powdered their hair, and raised it to an immense height, and also were monstrous hoops, long ruffles, and high-heeled shoes. Another odd fashion was that ladies put black patches on their faces, thinking they made them look handsomer. Both ladies and gentlemen took snuff, and carried beautiful snuff-boxes.



### CHAPTER XLII.

GEORGE II.

A.D. 1725-1760.

HE reign of George II. was a very warlike one. Indeed he was the last king of England who ever was personally in a battle; and curiously enough, this battle—that of Fontenoy—was the last that a king of France was also present in. It was, however, not a very interesting battle, and it was not clear who really won it, nor are the wars of this time very easy to understand.

The battle of Fontenoy was fought in the course of a great war to decide who should be emperor of Germany, in which France and England took different sides; and this made Charles Edward Stewart, the eldest son of James, think it a good moment for trying once again to get back the crown of his forefathers. He was a fine-looking young man, with winning manners, and a great deal more spirit than his father: and when he landed in Scotland with a very few followers, one Highland gentleman after another was so delighted with him that they all brought their clans to join him, and he was at the head of quite a large force, with which he took possession of the town of Edinburgh; but he never could take The English army was most of it away fighting in Germany, and the soldiers who met him at Prestonpans, close to Edinburgh, were not well managed, and were easily beaten by the Highlanders. Then he marched straight on into England: and there was great terror, for the Highlanderswith their plaids, long swords, and strange language-were thought to be all savage robbers, and the Londoners expected to have every house and shop ruined and themselves murdered: though on the whole the Highlanders behaved very well. They would probably have really entered London if they had gone on, and reached it before the army could come home, but they grew discontented and frightened at being so far away from their own hills; and at Derby, Charles Edward was obliged to let them turn back to Scotland.

The English army had come back by this time, and the Scots were followed closely, getting more sad and forlorn, and losing men in every day's march, till at last, after they had reached Scotland again, they made a stand against the English under the king's second son, William, Duke of Cumber-



CHARLES EDWARD.

land, at the heath of Culloden. There they were entirely routed, and the prince had to fly, and hide himself in strange places and disguises, much as his great uncle, Charles II., had done before him. A young lady named Flora Macdonald took him from one of the Western Isles to another in a boat as her Irish maid, Betty Bourke; and, at another time, he was hid in a sort of bower, called the cage, woven of branches of trees on a hill side, where he lived with three Highlanders, who used to go out by turns to get food. One of them once brought him a piece of ginger-bread as a treat—for they loved him heartily for being patient, cheerful, and thankful for all they did for him; and when at last he found a way of reaching France, and shook

hands with them on bidding them farewell, one of them tied up his right hand, and vowed that no meaner person should ever touch it.

His friends suffered as much as he did. The Duke of Cumberland and his soldiers cruelly punished all the places where he had been received, and all the gentlemen who had supported him were, if they were taken, tried and put to death as traitors—mostly at Carlisle. This, which was called the Rebellion of the Forty-five—because it happened in the year 1745—was the last rising in favor of the Stewarts. Neither Charles Edward nor his brother Henry had any children, and so the family came to an end.

The Empress Maria Theresa, of Germany, had a long war with Frederick, King of Prussia, who was nephew to George II., and a very clever and brave man, who made his little kingdom of Prussia very warlike and brave. But he was not a very good man, and these were sad times among the great people, for few of them thought much about being good: and there were clever Frenchmen who laughed at all religion. You know one of the Psalms says, "The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God." There were a great many such fools at that time, and their ways, together with the selfishness of the nobles, soon brought Errible times to France and all the countries round.

The wars under George II. were by sea as well as by land: and, likewise, in the distant countries where Englishmen, on the one hand, and Frenchmen, on the other, had made those new homes that we call colonies. In North America, both English and French had large settlements; and when the kings at home were at war, there were likewise battles in these distant parts, and the wild Red Indians were stirred up to take part with the one side or the other. They used to attack the homes of the settlers, burn them, torment and kill the men, and keep the children to bring up among their The English had, in general, the advantage, especially in Canada, where the brave young General Wolfe led an attack on the very early morning, to the Heights of Abraham, close to the town of Quebec. He was struck down by a shot early in the fight, and lay on the ground with a few officers round him. "They run, they run!" he heard them cry. "Who run?" he asked. "The French run." "Then I die happy," he said; and it was by this battle that England won Lower Canada, with many French inhabitants, whose descendants still speak their old language.

In the East Indies, too, there was much fighting. The English and French both had merchants there; and these had native soldiers to guard them, and made friends with the native princes. When these princes quarreled they helped them, and so obtained a larger footing. But in this reign the English power was nearly ended in a very sad way. A native Indian came suddenly down on Calcutta. Many English got on board the ships, but those who could not—one hundred and forty-six in number—were shut

up all night in a small room, in the hottest time of the year, and they were so crushed together and suffocated by the heat that, when the morning came, there were only twenty-three of them alive. This dreadful place was known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. The next year Calcutta was won back again; and the English, under Colonel Clive, gained so much ground that the French had no power left in India, and the English could go on obtaining more and more land, riches, and power.

George II. had lost his eldest son, Frederick, Prince of Wales, and his lively and clever wife, Queen Caroline, many years before his death. His chief ministers were, first, Sir Robert Walpole, and afterwards the Earl of Chatham-able men, who knew how to manage the country through all these wars. The king died at last, quite suddenly, when sixty-eight years

old, in the year 1760.



## CHAPTER XLIII.

GEORGE III.

A.D. 1760-1785.

FTER George II. reigned his grandson, George III., the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had died before his father. The Princess of Wales was a good woman, who tried to bring up her children well; and George III. was a dutiful son to her, and a good, faithful man-always caring more to do right than for anything else. He had been born in England, and did not feel as if Hanover were his home, as his father and grandfather had done, but loved England, and English people, and ways. When he was at Windsor, he used

to ride or walk about like a country squire, and he had a ruddy, hearty face and manner, that made him sometimes be called Farmer George; and he had an odd way of saying "What? what?" when he was spoken to, which made him be laughed at; but he was as good and true as any man who ever lived: and when he thought a thing was right, he was as firm as a rock in holding to it. He married a German princess named Charlotte, and they did their very utmost to make all those about them good. They had a very large family—no less than fourteen children—and it was long remembered what a beautiful sight it was when, after church on Sunday, the king and queen and their children used to walk up and down the stately terrace at Windsor Castle, with a band playing, and every one who was respectably dressed allowed to come and look at them.

Just after George III. came to the crown, a great war broke out in the English colonies in America. A new tax had been made. A tax means the money that has to be given to the Government of a country to pay the judges and their officers, the soldiers and the sailors, to keep up ships and buy weapons, and do all that is wanted to protect us and keep us in order. Taxes are sometimes made by calling on everybody to pay money in proportion to what they have—say threepence for every hundred pounds; sometimes they are made, by putting what is called a duty on something that is bought and sold—making it sell for more than its natural price—so



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

that the Government gets the money above the right cost. This is generally done with things that people could live without, and had better not buy too much of—such as spirits, tobacco, and hair-powder. And as tea was still a new thing in England, which only fine ladies drank, it was thought useless, and there was a heavy duty laid upon it when the king wanted money. Now, the Americans got their tea straight from China, and thought it was unfair that they should pay tax on it. So, though they used it much more than the English then did, they gave it up, threw whole ship-loads of it into the harbor at Boston, and resisted the soldiers. A gentleman named George Washington took the command, and they declared they would fight for freedom from the mother country. The French were beginning to think freedom was a fine thing, and at first a few French gentlemen came over to fight

among the Americans, and then the king, Louis XVI., quarreled with

George III, and helped them openly.

There was a very clever man among the Americans named Benjamin Franklin, a printer by trade, but who made very curious discoveries. One of them was that lightning comes from the strange power men call electricity, and that there are some substances which it will run along, so that it can be brought down to the ground without doing any mischief-especially metallic wires. He made sure of it by flying a kite, with such an iron wire, up to the clouds when there was a thunder storm. The lightning was attracted by the wire, ran right down the wet string of the kite, and only glanced off when it came to a silk ribbon-because electricity will not go along silk. After this, such wires were fastened to buildings, and carried down into the ground, to convey away the force of the lightning. They are frequently seen on the tops of churches or tall buildings, and are called conductors. Franklin was a plain-spoken, homely-dressing man; and when he was sent to Paris on the affairs of the Americans, all the great ladies and gentlemen went into raptures about his beautiful simplicity, and began to imitate him, in a very affected, ridiculous way.

In the meantime, the war went on between America and England, year after year; and the Americans became trained soldiers and got the better, so that George III. was advised to give up his rights over them. Old Lord Chatham, his grandfather's minister, who had long been too sick and feeble to undertake any public business, thought it so bad for the country to give anything up, that he came down to the House of Lords to make a speech against doing so; but he was not strong enough for the exertion, and had only just done speaking when he fainted away. He was carried to his coach and taken home, where he died a month later.

The war went on, but when it had lasted seven years the English felt that peace must be made; and so George III. gave up his rights to all that country that is called the United States of America. The United States set up a Government of their own, which has gone on ever since, without a king, but with a President, who is freshly chosen every four years, and for whom every man in the country has a vote.

As if to make up for what was lost in the West, the English were winning a great deal in the East Indies, chiefly from a great prince called Tippoo Sahib, who was very powerful, and at one time took a number of English officers prisoners, and drove them to his city of Seringapatam, chained together in pairs, and kept them half starved in a prison, where several died; but he was defeated and killed. They were set free by their countrymen, after nearly two years of grievous hardship.

#### CHAPTER XLIV.

GEORGE III.

A.D. 1785-1810.

HE chief sorrow of George III. was that his eldest sons were wild, disobedient young men. George, Prince of Wales, especially, was very handsome, and extremely proud of his own beauty. He was called the First Gentleman in Europe, and set the fashion in every matter of taste; but he spent and wasted money to a shameful amount, and was full of bad habits; besides which, he used to set himself in every way in his power to vex and contradict his father and mother, whom he despised for their plain simple ways and their love of duty.

The next two brothers—Frederick, Duke of York, and William, Duke of Clarence—had also very bad habits; but they went astray from carelessness, and did not wilfully oppose their father, like their eldest brother.

William Pitt, son of Lord Chatham, was Prime Minister. He thought that the Roman Catholics in England ought to have the same rights as the king's other subjects, and not be hindered from being members of Parliament, judges, or, indeed, from holding any office; and he wanted to bring a bill into Parliament for this purpose. But the king thought that for him to consent would be contrary to the oath he had sworn when he was crowned, and which had been drawn up when William of Orange came over. Nothing would make George III. break his word, and he remained firm, though he was so harassed and distressed that he fell ill, and lost the use of his reason for a time. There were questions whether the regency—that is, the right to act as king—should be given to the son, who, though his heir, was so unlike him, when he recovered; and there was a great day of joy throughout the nation, when he went in state to St. Paul's Cathedral to return thanks.

In the meantime, terrible troubles were going on in France. Neither the kings nor the nobles had, for ages past, had any notion of their proper duties to the people under them, but had ground them down so hard that at last they could bear it no longer; and there was a great rising up throughout the country, which is known as the Great French Revolution. The king who was then reigning was a good and kind man, Louis XVI., who would gladly have put things in better order; but he was not as wise or firm as he was good, and the people hated him for the evil doings of his

forefathers. So, while he was trying to make up his mind what to do, the power was taken out of his hands, and he, with his wife, sister, and two children, were shut up in prison. An evil spirit came into the people, and made them believe that the only way to keep themselves free would be to get rid of all who had been great people in the former days. So they set up a machine for cutting off heads, called the guillotine; and there, day after day, nobles and priests, gentlemen and ladies—even the king, queen, and princess, were brought and slain. The two children were not guillotined, but the poor little boy, only nine years old, was worse off than if he had been, for the cruel wretches who kept him called him the wolf-cub, and said he was to be got rid of; and they kept him alone in a dark, dirty room, and



A PYRAMID (EGYPT).

used him so ill that he pined to death. His sister remained in prison till better days came. Many French gentry and clergymen fled to England, and there were kindly treated and helped to live; and the king's brother, now the rightful king himself, found a home there too.

At last the French grew weary of this horrible bloodshed: but, as they could not manage themselves, a soldier named Napoleon Bonaparte, by his great eleverness and the victories he gained over other nations, succeeded in getting all the power. His victories were wonderful. He beat the Germans, the Italians, the Russians, and conquered wherever he went. There was only one nation he never could beat, and that was the English; though he very much wanted to go to England with a great fleet and army, and to conquer the island. All over England people got ready. All the men learnt

something of how to be soldiers, and made themselves into regiments of volunteers; and careful watch was kept against the quantities of flatbottomed boats that Bonaparte had made ready to bring his troops across the English Channel. But no one had ships and sailors like the English; and, besides, they had the greatest sea-captain who ever lived, whose name was Horatio Nelson. When the French went under Napoleon to try to conquer Egypt and all the East, Nelson went after them with his ships, and beat the whole French fleet, though it was a great deal larger than his own, at the the mouth of the Nile, blowing up the Admiral's ship, and taking and burning many more. Afterward, when the King of Denmark was being made to take part against England, Nelson's fleet sailed to Copenhagen, fought a sharp battle, and took all the Danish ships. And lastly, when Spain had made friends with France, and both their fleets had joined together against England, Lord Nelson fought them both off Cape Trafalgar, and gained the greatest of all his victories; but it was his last, for a Frenchman on the mast-head shot him through the backbone, and he died the same night. No one should ever forget the order he gave to all his sailors in all the ships before the battle—"England expects every man to do his duty."

After the battle of Trafalgar the sea was cleared of the enemy's ships, and there was no more talk of invading England. Indeed, though Bonaparte overran nearly all the Continent of Europe, the smallest strip of sea was enough to stop him, for his ships could not stand before the English ones.

For the greater part of this time English affairs were managed by Mr. Pitt, Lord Chatham's son; but he died the same year Lord Nelson was killed, 1805, and then his great rival, Mr. Fox, held office in the ministry; but he, too, died very soon, and affairs were managed by less clever men, but who were able to go on in the line that Pitt had marked out for them: and that was, of standing up with all their might against Bonaparte—though he now called himself the Emperor, Napoleon I., and was treading down every country in Europe.

The war time was a hard one at home in England, for everything was very dear and the taxes were high; but every one felt that the only way to keep the French away was to go on fighting with them, and trying to help the people in the countries they seized upon. So the whole country stood up bravely against them.

Sad trouble came on the good old king in his later years. He lost his sight, and, about the same time, died his youngest child, the Princess Amelia, of whom he was very fond. His grief clouded his mind again, and there was no recovery this time. He was shut up in some rooms at Windsor Castle, where he had music to amuse him, and his good wife, Queen Charlotte, watched over him carefully as long as she lived.

## CHAPTER XLV.

GEORGE III .- THE REGENCY.

A.D. 1810-1820.

HEN George III. lost his senses, the government was given to his son, the Prince of Wales—the Prince Regent, as he was called. Regent means a person ruling instead of the king. Every one expected that, as he had always quarreled with his father, he would change everything and have different ministers; but instead of that, he went on just as had been done before, fighting with the French, and helping every country that tried to lift up its head against Bonaparte.

Spain was one of these countries. Napoleon had wickedly managed to get the king, and queen, and eldest son, all into his hands together, shut them up as prisoners in France, and made his own brother king. But the Spaniards were too brave to bear this, and they rose up against him, calling the English to help them. Sir John Moore was sent first, and he marched an army into Spain; but, though the Spaniards were brave, they were not steady, and when Napoleon sent more troops he was obliged to march back over steep hills, covered with snow, to Corunna, where he had left the ships. The French followed him, and he had to fight a battle to drive them back, that his soldiers might embark in quiet. It was a great victory; but in the midst of it Sir John Moore was wounded by a cannon-shot, and only lived long enough to hear that the battle was won. He was buried at the dead of night on the ramparts of Corunna, by his officers, wrapped in his cloak, just before they embarked for England.

However, before the year was over, Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent out to Portugal and Spain. He never once was beaten, and though twice he had to retreat into Portugal, he soon won back the ground he had lost; and in three years' time he had driven the French quite out of Spain, and even crossed the Pyrenéan mountains after them, forcing them back into their own country, and winning the battle of Toulouse on their own ground. This grand war had more victories in it than can be easily remembered. The chief of them were at Salamanca, Vittoria, Orthes, and Toulouse; and the whole war was called the Peninsular War, because it was fought in the Peninsula of Spain and Portugal. Sir Arthur

Wellesley had been made Duke of Wellington, to reward him, and he set off across France to meet the armies of the other European countries. For, while the English were fighting in Spain, the other states of Europe had all joined together against Napoleon, and driven him away from robbing them, and hunted him at last back to Paris, where they made him give up all his unlawful power. The right king of France, Louis XVIII., was brought home, and Napoleon was sent to a little island named Elba, in the Mediterranean Sea, where it was thought he could do no harm.

But only the next year he managed to escape, and came back to France, where all his old soldiers were delighted to see him again. The king was obliged to fly, and Napoleon was soon at the head of as large and fierce an army as ever. The first countries that were ready to fight with him were England and Prussia. The Duke of Wellington with the English, and Marshal Blücher with the Prussian army, met him on the field of Waterloo, in Belgium; and there he was so entirely defeated that he had to flee away from the field. But he found no rest or shelter anywhere, and at last was obliged to give himself up to the captain of an English ship named the Bellerophon. He was taken to Plymouth harbor, and kept in the ship while it was being determined what should be done with him: and at length it was decided to send him to St. Helena, a very lonely island far away in the Atlantic Ocean, whence he would have no chance of escaping. There he was kept for five years, at the end of which time he died.

The whole of Europe was at peace again; but the poor old blind King George did not know it, nor how much times had changed in his long reign. The war had waked people up from the dull state they had been in so long, and much was going on that began greater changes than any one thought of. Sixty years before, when he began to reign, the roads were so bad that it took three days to go by coach to London from Bath; now they were smooth and good, and fine swift horses were kept at short stages, which made the coaches take only a few hours on the journey. Letters came much quicker and more safely; there were a great many newspapers, and everybody was more alive. Some great writers there were, too: the Scottish poet, Walter Scott, who wrote some of the most delightful tales there are in the world; and three who lived at the lakes-Wordsworth, Southey, and Coleridge. It was only in this reign that people cared to write books for children. Mrs. Trimmer's "Robins," Mr. Day's "Sandford and Merton," and Miss Edgeworth's charming stories were being written in those days. Mrs. Trimmer, and another good lady called Hannah More, were trying to get the poor in villages better taught; and there was a very good Yorkshire gentleman-William Wilberforce-who was striving to make people better.

As to people's looks in those days, they had quite left off wigs-except

bishops, judges, and lawyers, in their robes. Men had their hair short and curly, and wore coats shaped like evening ones—generally blue, with brass buttons—buff waistcoats, and tight trousers tucked into their boots, tight stocks round their necks, and monstrous shirt-frills. Ladies had their gowns and pelisses made very short-waisted, and as tight and narrow as they could be, though with enormous sleeves in them, and their hair in little eurls on their foreheads. Old ladies wore turbans in evening dress; and both they and their daughters had immense bonnets and hats, with a high crown and very large front.

In the year 1820, the good old king passed away.



## CHAPTER XLVI.

GEORGE IV.

A.D. 1820-1830.

CORGE IV. was not much under sixty years old when he came to the throne, and had really been king in all but the name for eight years past. He had been married to the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, much against his will, for she was, though a princess, far from being a lady in any of her ways, and he disliked her from the first moment he saw her; and though he could not quite treat her as Henry VIII, had treated Anne of Cleves, the two were so unhappy together that, after the first year, they never

lived in the same house. They had one child, a daughter, named Charlotte—a good, bright, sensible, high-spirited girl—on whom all the hopes of the country were fixed; but as she grew up, there were many troubles between her love and her duty toward her father and mother. As soon as the peace was made, the Princess of Wales went to Italy and lived there, with a great many people of bad characters about her. Princess Charlotte was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg, and was very happy with him; but, to the great grief of all England, she died in the bloom of her youth, the year before her grandfather.

George IV., though he was so much alone in the world, prepared to have a most splendid coronation; but as soon as his wife heard that he was king, she set off to come to England and be erowned with him. He was exceed.

ingly angry, forbade her name to be put into the Prayer-books as queen, and called on the House of Lords to break his marriage with one who had proved herself not worthy to be a wife. There was a great uproar about it, for though the king's friends wanted him to be rid of her, all the country knew that he had been no better to her than she had been to him, and felt it unfair that the weaker one should have all the shame and disgrace, and the stronger one none. One of Caroline's defenders said that if her name were left out of the Litany, yet still she was prayed for there as one who was desolate and oppressed. People took up her cause much more hotly than she deserved, and the king was obliged to give up the inquiry into her behavior, but still he would not let her be crowned. In the midst of all the splendor and solemnity in Westminster Abbey, a carriage was driven to the door and entrance was demanded for the queen; but she was kept back, and the people did not seem disposed to interrupt the show by doing anything in her favor, as she and her friends had expected. She went back to her rooms, and, after being more foolish than ever in her ways, died, of fretting and pining. It is a sad history, where both were much to blame; and it shows how hateful to the king she must have been, that, when Napoleon died, being told his greatest enemy was dead, he answered, "When did she die?" But if he had been a good man himself, and not selfish, he would have borne with the poor, ill-brought-up, giddy girl, when first she came, and that would have prevented her going so far astray.

George IV. made two journeys—one to Scotland, and the other to Ireland. He was the first of the House of Brunswick who ever visited these other two kingdoms, and he was received in both with great splendor and rejoicing; but after this his health began to fail, and he disliked showing himself. He spent most of his time at a house he had built for himself at Brighton, called the Pavilion, and at Windsor, where he used to drive about in the park. He was kind and gracious to those with whom he associated,

but they were as few as possible.

He was vexed and angry at having to consent to the Bill for letting Roman Catholics sit in Parliament, and hold other offices—the same that his father had stood out against. It was not that he cared for one religion more than another, for he had never been a religious man, but he saw that it would be the beginning of a great many changes that would alter the whole state of things. His next brother, Frederick, Duke of York, died before him; and the third, William, Duke of Clarence, who had been brought up as an officer in the navy, was a friend of the Whigs, and of those who were ready to make alterations.

Changes were coming of themselves, though—for inventions were making progress in this time of peace. People had begun to find out the great power of steam, and had made it move the ships, which had hitherto de-

pended upon the winds, and thus it became much easier to travel from one country to another and to send goods. Steam was also being used to work engines for spinning and weaving cotton, linen, and wool, and for working



PARLIAMENT HOUSES.

in metals; so that what had hitherto been done by hand, by small numbers of skilful people, was now brought about by large machines, where the labor was done by stemm; but quantities of people were needed to assist the

engine. And as steam cannot be had without fire, and most of the coal is in the Northern parts of England, almost all of these works were set up in them, and people flocked to get work there, so that the towns began to grow very large. Manchester was one, with Liverpool as the sea-port from which to send its calico, and get its cotton. Sheffield and Birmingham grew famous for works in iron and steel, and so on; and all this tended to make the manufacturers as rich and great as the old lords and squires, who had held most of the power in England ever since, at the Revolution, they had got it away from the king. Every one saw that some great change would soon come; but before it came to the point George IV. fell ill, and died after a reign of twenty years in reality, but of only ten in name, the first five of which were spent in war, and the last fifteen in peace. The Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel were his chief ministers—for the duke was as clear-headed in peace as he was in war.



#### CHAPTER XLVII.

WILLIAM IV.

A.D. 1830-1837.

EORGE IV. had no child living at the time of his death. His next brother, Frederic, Duke of York, died before him, likewise without children, so the crown went to William, Duke of Clarence, third son of George III. He had been a sailor in his younger days, but was an elderly man when he came to the throne. He was a dull and not a very wise man, but good-natured and kind, and had an open, friendly, sailor manner; and his wife, Queen Adelaide, of Saxe-Meiningen, was an excellent woman, whom every one

respected. They never had any children but two daughters who died in infancy: and every one knew that the next heir must be the Princess Victoria, daughter to the next brother, Edward, Duke of Kent, who had died the year after she was born.

King William IV. had always been friendly with the Whigs, who wanted power for the people. Those who went farthest among them were called Radicals, because they wanted a radical reform—that is, going to the root. In fact, it was time to alter the way of sending members to the House of Commons, for some of the towns that had once been big enough to choose

one were now deserted and grown very small, while on the other hand, others which used to be little villages, like Birmingham and Brighton, had

now become very large, and full of people.

The Duke of Wellington and his friends wanted to consider of the best way of setting these things to rights, but the Radicals wanted to do much more and much faster than he was willing to grant. The poor fancied that the new rights proposed would make them better off all at once, and that every man would get a fat pig in his stye and as much bread as he wanted; and they were so angry at any delay, that they went about in bands burning the hay-ricks and stacks of corn, to frighten their landlords. And the Duke of Wellington's great deeds were forgotten in the anger of the mob, who gathered round him, ready to abuse and pelt him as he rode along; and yet, as they saw his quiet, calm way of going on, taking no heed to them, and quite fearless, no one raised a hand. They broke the windows. of his house in London, though, and he had iron blinds put up to protect them. He went out of office, and the Whigs came in, and then the Act of Parliament was passed which was called the Reform Bill—because it set to rights what had gone wrong as to which towns should have members of their own, and, besides, allowed every one in a borough town, who rented a house at ten pounds a year, to vote for the member of A borough, it must be remembered, is a town that has a member of Parliament, and a city is one that is, or has been, the see of a Bishop.

Several more changes were made under King William. Most of the great union workhouses were built then, and it was made less easy to get This was meant to cure help from the parish without going to live in one. people of being idle and liking to live on other folks' money-and it has done good in that way; but workhouses are sad places for the poor aged people who cannot work, and it is a great kindness to help them to keep

out of them.

The best thing that was done was the setting the slaves free. Look at the map of America, and you will see a number of islands—beautiful places, where sugar-canes, and coffee, and spices grow. Many of these belong to the English, but it is too hot for Englishmen to work there. So, for more than a hundred years, there had been a wicked custom that ships should go to Africa, and there the crews would steal negro men, women, and children, or buy them of tribes of fierce negroes who had made them captive, and carry them off to the West Indian Islands, where they were sold to work for their masters, just as cattle are bought and sold. An English gentleman—William Wilberforce—worked half his life to get this horrible slave-trade forbidden; and at last he succeeded, in the year 1807, whilst George III. was still reigning. But though no more blacks were brought from Africa, still the people

in the West Indies were allowed to keep, and buy and sell the slaves they already had. So Wilberforce and his friends still worked on until the time of William IV., when, in 1834, all the slaves in the British dominions were set free.

This reign only lasted seven years, and there were no wars in it; so the only other thing that I have to tell you about it is, that people had gone on from finding that steam could be made to work their ships to making it draw carriages. Railways were being made for trains of carriages and vans to be drawn by one steam-engine. The oldest of all was between Manchester and Liverpool, and was opened in 1830, the very year that William IV. began to reign, and that answered so well that more and more began to be made, and the whole country to be covered with a network of railways, so that people and goods could be carried about much quicker than ever was dreamt of in old times; while steam-ships were made larger and larger, and to go greater distances:

Besides this, many people in England found there was not work or food enough for them at home, and went to settle in Canada, and Australia, and Van Dieman's Land, and New Zealand, making, in all these distant places, the new English homes called colonies; and thus there have come to be

English people wherever the sun shines.

William IV. died in the year 1837. He was the last English king who had the German State of Hanover. It cannot belong to a woman, so it went to his brother Ernest, instead of his niece Victoria.



## CHAPTER XLVIII.

VICTORIA.

A.D. 1837-1855.

HE Princess Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, was but eighteen years old when she was waked early one morning to

hear that she was Queen of England.

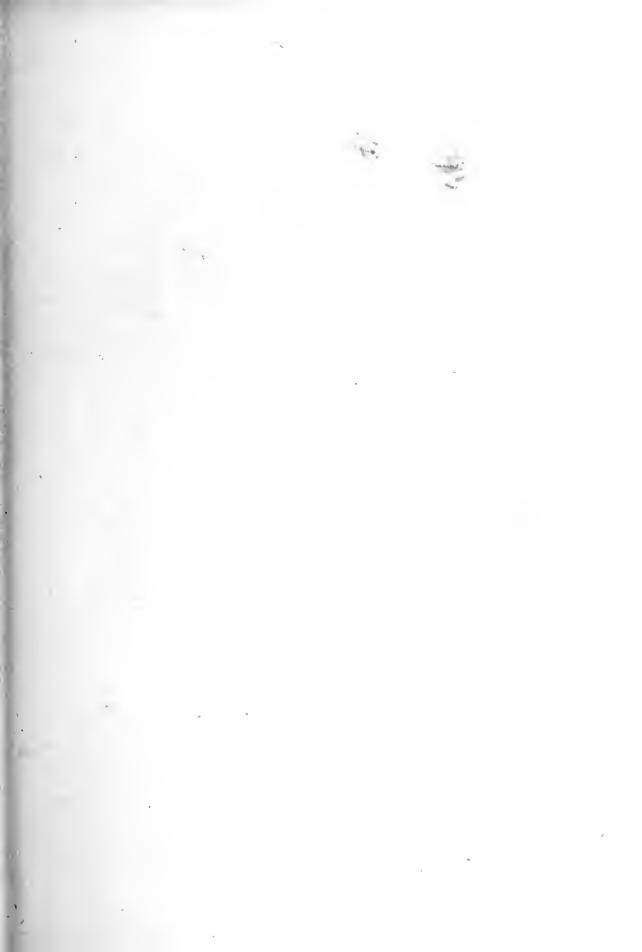
She went with her mother, the Duchess of Kent, to live, sometimes at Buckingham Palace and sometimes at Windsor Castle, and the next year she was crowned in state at Westminster Abbey. Every one saw then how kind she was, for when one of the lords, who was very old, stumbled on the steps as he came to pay her homage, she sprang up from her

throne to help him.

Three years later she was married to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, a most excellent man, who made it his whole business to help her in all her duties as sovereign of her great country, without putting himself forward. Nothing ever has been more beautiful than the way those two behaved to one another: she never forgetting that he was her husband and she only his wife, and he always remembering that she was really the queen, and that he had no power at all. He had a clear head and good judgment that every one trusted to, and yet he always kept himself in the background, that the queen might have all the credit of whatever was done.

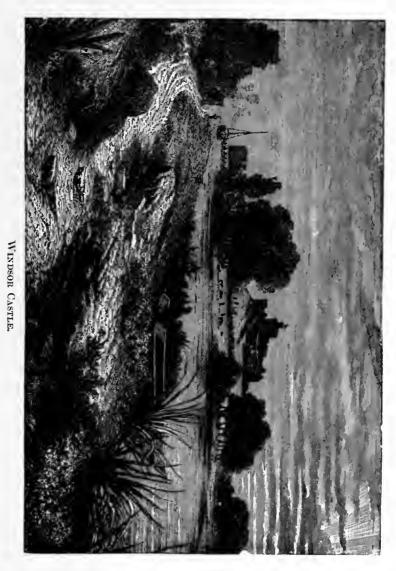
He took much pains to get all that was good and beautiful encouraged, and to turn people's minds to doing things not only in the quickest and cheapest, but in the best and most beautiful way possible. One of these plans that he carried out was to set up what he called an International Exhibition, namely—a great building, to which every country was invited to send specimens of all its arts and manufactures. It was called the World's Fair. The house was of glass, and was a beautiful thing in itself. It was opened on the 1st of May, 1851; and, though there have been many great International Exhibitions since, not one has come up to the first.

People talked as if the World's Fair was to make all nations friends; but it is not showing off their laces and their silks, their ironwork and brass, their pictures and statues, that can keep them at peace: and, only two years after the Great Exhibition, a great war broke out in Europe—only a year after the great Duke of Wellington had died, full of years and honors.





The only country in Europe that is not Christian is Turkey; and the Russians have always greatly wished to conquer Turkey, and join it on to their great empire. The Turks have been getting less powerful for a long time past, and finding it harder to govern the country; and one day the Emperor of Russia asked the English ambassador, Sir Hamilton Seymour,



if he did not think the Turkish power a very sick man who would soon be dead. Sir Hamilton Seymour knew what this meant; and he knew the English did not think it right that the Russians should drive out the Sultan of Turkey—even though he is not a Christian; so he made the emperor understand that if the sick man did die, it would not be for want of doctors.

Neither the English nor the French could bear that the Russians should get so much power as they would have if they gained all the countries down to the Mediterranean Sea; so, as soon as ever the Russians began to attack the Turks, the English and French armies were sent to defend them; and they found the best way of doing this was to go and fight the Russians in their own country, namely-the Crimea, the peniusula which hangs, as it were, down into the Black Sea. So, in the autumn of the year 1854, the English and French armies, under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, were landed in the Crimea, where they gained a great victory on their first landing, called the battle of the Alma, and then besieged the city of Sebastopol. It was a very long siege, and in the course of it the two armies suffered sadly from cold and damp, and there was much illness; but a brave English lady, named Florence Nightingale, went out with a number of nurses to take care of the sick and wounded, and thus she saved a great many lives. There were two more famous battles. One was when six hundred English horsemen were sent by mistake against a whole battery of Russian cannon, and rode on as bravely as if they were not seeing their comrades shot down, till scarcely half were left. This was called the Charge of Balaklaya, The other battle was when the Russians crept out, late in the evening of November 5th, to attack the English camp; and there was a dreadful fight by night and in the early morning, on the heights of Inkerman; but at last the English won the battle, and gave the day a better honor than it had had before. Then came a terrible winter of watching the city and firing at the walls; and when at last, on the 18th of June, 1855, it was assaulted, the defenders beat the attack off: and Lord Raglan, worn out with care and vexation, died a few days after. However, soon another attack was made, and in September half the city was won. The Emperor of Russia had died during the war, and his son made peace, on condition that Sebastopol should not be fortified again, and that the Russians should let the Turks alone, and keep no fleet in the Black Sea.

In this war news flew faster than ever it had done before. Remember, Benjamin Franklin found that electricity—that strange power of which lightning is the visible sign—could be carried along upon metal wire. It had since been made out how to make the touch of a magnet at one end of these wires make the other end move, so that letters can be pointed to, words spelt out, and messages sent to any distance with really the speed of lightning. This is the wonderful electric telegraph, the wires of which run alongside the railway.



#### CHAPTER XLIX.

VICTORIA.

A.D. 1857-1860.

ACE had been made after the Crimean war, and everybody hoped it was going to last, when very sad news came from India. Remember that English people had gone from home to live in India, and had gradually gained more and more lands there, so that they were making themselves rulers and governors over all that great country. They had some of the regiments of the English army to help them to keep up their power, and a great many soldiers besides—Hindoos, or natives of India, who had English officers, and were taught to fight

in the English manner. These Hindoo soldiers were called Sepoys. They were not Christians, but were some of them Mohammedaus, and some believed in the strange religion of India, which teaches people to believe in a great many gods—some of them very savage and cruel ones, according to their stories, and which forbid them many very simple things. One of the things it forbids is the killing a cow, or touching beef, or any part of it.

Now, it seems the Sepoys had grown discontented with the English; and, besides that, there came out a new sort of cartridge—that is, little parcels of powder and shot with which to load fire-arms. The Sepoys took it into their heads that these cartridges had grease in them taken from cows, and that it was a trick on the part of the English to make them break the rules of their religion, and force them to become Christians. In their anger they made a conspiracy together; and, in many of the places in India, they then suddenly turned upon their English officers, and shot them down on their parade ground, and then they went to the houses and killed every white woman and child they could meet with. Some few had very wonderful escapes, and were kindly protected by native friends; and many showed great bravery and piety in their troubles. After that the Sepoys marched away to the city of Delhi, where an old man lived who had once been king, and they set him up to be king, while every English person left in the city was murdered.

The English regiments in India made haste to come into Bengal, to try to save their country-folk who had shut themselves up in the towns or strong places, and were being besieged there by the Sepoys. A great many

were in barracks in Cawnpore. It was not a strong place, and only had a mud wall round; but there was a native prince called the Nana Sahib, who had always seemed a friend to the officers-had gone out hunting with them, and invited them to his house. They thought themselves safe near him; but, to their horror, he forgot all this, and joined the Sepoys. cannon were turned against them, and the Sepoys watched all day the barrack-yard where they were shut in, and shot every one who went for water. At last, after more pain and misery than we can bear to think of, they gave themselves up to the Nana, and, horrible to tell, he killed them all. The men were shot the first day, and the women and little children were then shut up in a house, where they were kept for a night. Then the Nana heard that the English army was coming, and in his fright and rage he sent in his men, who killed every one of them, and threw their bodies into a deep well. The English came up the next day, and were nearly mad with grief and anger. They could not lay hands on the Nana, but they punished all the people he had employed; and they were so furious that they hardly showed mercy to another Sepoy after that dreadful sight.

There were some more English holding out in the city of Lucknow, and they longed to go to their relief; but first Delhi, where the old king was, had to be taken; and, as it was a very strong place, it was a long time before it was conquered; but at last the gates of the city were blown up by three brave men, and the whole army made their way in. More troops had been sent out from England to help their comrades, and they were able at last to march to Lucknow. There, week after week, the English soldiers, men of business, ladies, soldiers' wives, and little children, had bravely waited, with the enemy round, and shots so often coming through the buildings that they had chiefly to live in the cellars; and the food was so scanty and bad, that the sickly people and the little babies mostly died; and no one seemed able to get well if once he was wounded. Help came at last. brave Sir Colin Campbell, who had been sent out from home, brought the army to their rescue, and they were saved. The Sepoys were beaten in every fight; and at last the terrible time of the mutiny was over, and India quiet again.

In 1860, the queen and all the nation had a grievous loss in the death of the good Prince Consort, Albert, who died of a fever at Windsor Castle, and was mourned for by every one, as if he had been a relation or friend. He left nine children, of whom the eldest, Victoria, the Princess Royal, was married to the Prince of Prussia. He had done everything to help forward

improvements; and the country only found out how wise and good he was after he was taken away.

Pains began to be taken to make the great towns healthier. It is true that the plague has never come to England since the reign of Charles II.,

but those sad diseases, cholera and typhus fever, come where people will not attend to cleanliness. The first time the cholera came was in the year 1833, under William IV.; and that was the worst time of all, because it was a new disease, and the doctors did not know what to do to cure it. But now they understand it much better—both how to treat it, and, what is better, how to keep it away; and that is by keeping everything sweet and clean. If we do that, we may trust that God in His mercy will keep deadly sickness away.





#### CHAPTER L.

VICTORIA.

A.D. 1860-1872.

NE more chapter, which, happily, does not finish the history of the good and highly esteemed Queen Victoria, and these Stories of the History of England will be over.

All the nation rejoiced very much when the queen's eldest son, Albert Edward, the Prince of Wales, married Alexandra, daughter to the King of Denmark. Her father and mother brought her to England, and the prince met her on board ship in the mouth of the Thames; and there was a most beautiful and joyous procession through London. When they were

married the next day, in St. George's Chapel at Windsor, the whole of England made merry, and there were bonfires on every hill, and illuminations in every town, so that the whole island was glowing with brightness all that Spring evening. And there might well be rejoicing and thanksgiving, for the English nation love the Princess of Wales, who is as good as she is beautiful.

There is a country in Africa called Abyssinia, south of Egypt. The people there are Christiaus, but they have had very little to do with other nations, and have grown very dull and half savage; indeed, they have many horrid and disgusting customs, and have forgotten all the teaching that would have made them better. Of late years there had been some attempt to wake them up and teach them; and they had a clever king named Theodore, who seemed pleased and willing to improve himself and his nation. He allowed missionaries to come and try to teach his people what Christianity means a little better than they knew before, and invited skilled workmen to come and teach his people. They came; but not long after Theodore was affronted by the English Government, and shut them all up in prison. Messages were sent to insist upon his releasing them, but he did not attend or understand; and at last an army was sent to land on the coast from the east, under General Napier, and march to his capital, which was called Magdala, and stood on a hill.

General Napier managed so well that there was no fighting on the road. He came to the gates of Magdala, and threatened to fire upon it if the prisoners were not given up to him. He waited till the time was up, and then caused his troops to begin the attack. The Abyssinians fled away, and close by one of the gates Theodore was found lying dead, shot through. No one is quite sure whether one of his servants killed him treacherously, or whether he killed himself in his rage and despair. England did not try to keep Abyssinia, though it was conquered; but it was left to the Royal Family whom Theodore had turned out, and Theodore's little son, about five years old, was brought to England; but as he could not bear the cold winters, he was sent to a school in India. He did not live to grow up. This war took place in 1868.

It was much feared that it would be necessary to have another war on behalf of the Turks, because the Russians were not keeping the treaty that had been made after the Crimean war. There was a sharp war in 1878–9, between the Turks and Russians. The British fleet was sent to the Turkish seas, and soldiers were brought from India in case they should be wanted; but when the Russians found that the English were in earnest, they consented that there should be a great meeting of messengers from all the chief powers of Europe, at Berlin, and peace was made. The Turks promised that, if the English would protect them, they would allow English officers to see that their Christian subjects were not ill-used, and that violence and robbery were put down. They also gave up to England the island of Cyprus, in pledge for the money that had been loaned them.

On the south-east coast of Africa, there is a great colony of English, called Natal. The native people there are called Kaffirs. They are black, but they have much more sense and spirit than Negroes have. The most

important among them are the tribes known as Zulus. These people, who are independent, have had very fierce and able kings, who trained them up to war, and who were dreadfully cruel, so that a great number of their subjects fled across the border, the river Tugela, between the free country and that subject to the English. These poor runaways are glad to pay a small sum by the year for leave to live in the territory of the English, often work-

ing for them, and becoming servants in their houses.

On the further side, to the west, there is a great settlement called the Transvaal. The people there are descended from the Dutch, who, when Cape Colony was made over to England, did not choose to live under English rule, but went off, with their wagons, oxen, and families, to find a free home. They are called Boers, which is the Dutch word for a farmer. There have always been a great many quarrels between the Boers and the Kaffirs, and horridly savage things have been done on each side. At last, as the English colonists spread further and further, and many of them became mixed with the Dutch, it seemed well that the Transvaal should be taken under the English rule, and that Government should guard it from the Kaffirs, instead of each family fighting for itself. Some of the Boers objected much, and some people thought the arrangement unjust. Moreover, the Zulu King, Cetewayo, who had for many years been a friend to England, became angry, and began to show that he intended to make war.

The English governor thought it best to begin. So an army was marched across the Tugela. But most likely the officers did not understand how fierce and brave wild savages like the Zulus could be, for one division of the forces which were in the camp at Isandulana let itself be lured out of shelter. The Zulus in huge numbers came round them, and killed almost every man of them, then broke into the camp and made a dreadful slaughter there. Only a very few escaped across the Tugela to tell the sad story; but at another little camp, called Rorke's Drift, there was a most brave defence, the biscuit tins were built up into a wall, and the soldiers fired over it, and beat off the enemy.

Cetewayo had lost a great many of his men, and he never tried to invade Natal. There was a camp under Colonel Pearson which was closely watched, and had to wait for relief till troops could be collected; but when it was possible to advance again, the English drove all before them, and at last Cetewayo himself was made prisoner and sent to Cape Town, while his lands have been broken up among smaller chiefs, who are not to be allowed to follow his cruel customs. All the Kaffirs living under English rule were faithful, and never tried to join their countrymen.

One sad thing happened in this war. The son of the Emperor Napoleon III. had been brought up in the English military school at Woolwich. He was very anxious to share in the fighting, and though he was not in the

army, he obtained leave to go out to Africa. Orders were given to be very careful of him, and not let him run into any danger, but he was a bold, dashing youth, and bent on seeing and doing everything. Thus he went out with a small party to survey the country, and while all were on foot sketching, some Zulus darted out of a cover of long grass and reeds, and the party mounted and rode off, but unfortunately the Prince's saddle tore in his hand, so that he could not mount: he was overtaken by the Zulus and killed, fighting bravely, with fifteen wounds of assegais.

Another war was going on at the same time in Afghanistan, a country to the north of India, because its prince, who is called the Ameer, refused to have an English envoy placed at his court, and it was feared that he meant to call in the Russians. In fact, there have, for the last hundred and fifty years been many more wars in India than it is possible even to name in this work. The Queen is now called Empress of India, where she has nearly two hundred and forty millions of subjects, more than ten times the number she has in England and Wales.





BAD LANDS MOUNTAIN.

# STORIES OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

BY JOHN A. DOYLE.

#### CHAPTER I.

AMERICA: ITS GEOGRAPHY AND NATIVES.

EFORE entering upon the history of any people, it is well to get a distinct idea of the land in which they dwell. This knowledge is especially needful in the case of newly settled nations like the European colonies in America. For there is one great point of difference between the present inhabitants of America and the rest of the civilized nations of the world. Except the English settlers in Australia and New Zealand, they are the only civilized people of any importance, who have entered into their present dwelling-place in times

of which we have full and clear accounts. Of the great nations of Europe and Asia some were settled in their present abodes in times so early that

we know nothing certain about them The greater part moved in times of which we know something, often indeed a good deal, but of which we have no exact history. It is always very difficult to say how far the condition and character of a nation are the result of the physical features of the country in which it dwells, or of other causes which we cannot trace. But in looking at the present nations of America, we have this great advantage. We can see the country as it was before the inhabitants came to it, and we can see the inhabitants as they were before they came to the country. For they went there in times when nearly as much was known about the chief nations of Europe as is now. Thus we can compare the people as they were before they came to America with what their descendants became afterwards, and we can also compare those descendants with the descendants of the men who stayed at home in Europe; and as we also have full knowledge of all that has befallen them since they went out, we can to some extent make out how far their history since has been affected by the nature of the land in which they dwell, and how far by other causes. With every country it is needful to know something of its geography before we can understand its history, but this is especially needful in America. There is no reason for thinking that the character of the country has had more influence on the history of the people there than elsewhere, but the influence which it has had is more important to us, because we can make out more about it.

There are two ways in which the geography of a country may be looked at. We may look at it, so to speak, from within and from without. may consider the country merely as one of the various parts of which the world is made up, and see how it stands toward other countries, how it is separated from them, and how it may be most easily reached from them: or we may consider the country by itself, setting all other lands aside for the moment, and concerning ourselves entirely with its internal character, its shape, soil, climate, and the like. In order to understand the history of the American settlements, we must look at the geography of America in each of these ways. As the founders of the settlements with which we have to deal came from Europe, we must see how America stood towards Europe, from what parts of Europe it could be most easily reached, and in what parts of America men sailing thence would be likely to settle. Secondly, we must look at the country in which the settlers established themselves, and see what effects it was likely to have on the inhabitants; how far it was suited to trade, how far to agriculture, and generally what sort of a state was likely to grow up in such a country.

However, the subject before us is not the history of America, but only of a certain part of it, namely, of those English colonies which have since become the United States; therefore we are only concerned with the internal

geography of so much of the country as those States occupy. That is, we have to look at a strip of land along the Atlantic coast of America, nearly two thousand miles long, and at most parts about two hundred miles broad. The present boundary of the United States indeed extends much farther inland, and so did their professed boundary when they were first settled. But, as is almost always the case in a newly colonized country, all the settlements of any importance were along the coast, and, as they extended inland, those that were near the coast still kept the lead in politics and education and general activity. So that, just as for a time the history of Europe was little more than the history of the unitions along the coast of the Mediterranean, so the history of the United States has been till recently the history of the European settlements along the coast of the Atlantic.

Before going into the internal geography of the United States, it will be as well to look at the subject in the other way, and to consider how America stands towards other countries. The first thing probably which strikes every one on looking at a map of America is its complete separation from the rest of the world. There is, we may say, no part of the eastern coast less than three thousand miles from Europe, and no part of the western less than six thousand from Asia. Toward the north both Asia and Europe are much nearer to America, but in those parts the cold is so great, the soil so barren, and the sea so unfit for navigation, that it is scarcely possible for men to exist on either side in a state of civilization, or if they did, to emigrate from one continent to the other. As far then as we are concerned, America is separated from Europe by the whole of the Atlantic ocean, and from Asia by the whole of the Pacific. We can also at once see that America reaches almost in a straight line from north to south, forming a sort of bar across the western half of the world, and facing Europe on the one side and Asia on the other. We can see too that in order to reach the west coast from Europe or the east coast from Asia, one would have to sail right round Africa. So it is clear that no one in the common course of things would ever sail from Europe to America except across the Atlantic, or from Asia across the Pacific. Thus America is twice as far from Asia as it is from Europe. Nor is this all. If we look at any map of America in which the height of the ground is shown, we shall at once see a great difference between the eastern, or, as we may call it, the European, and the western or Asiatic coast. A chain of mountains runs along the whole length of the continent, not like a backbone, down the middle, but all along the west side, forming a sort of wall between the mainland and the Pacific. In many places these mountains form steep precipices close to the shore, and there is scarcely a single spot on the whole coast where land does not almost at once rise more than five hundred feet above the sea. To make this barrier more complete, the face of these

mountains is in many parts covered with thick woods, and, as we can easily see, it was just as impossible for men coming from Asia to make their way into the country by water as by land. For, except far north, there is not on the west side of America a single river large enough to be of any use



MOUNTAIN SCENERY ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

to expeditions of settlers wishing to make their way inland. And moreover the greater part of the coast is barren and unhealthy, and badly supplied with fresh water. If, on the other hand, we look at the opposite coast, we shall see that its whole character is quite different. For nearly the whole length of it consists of low land sloping down to the sea, and all the rivers of the American continent flow into it; and it is well supplied with harbors

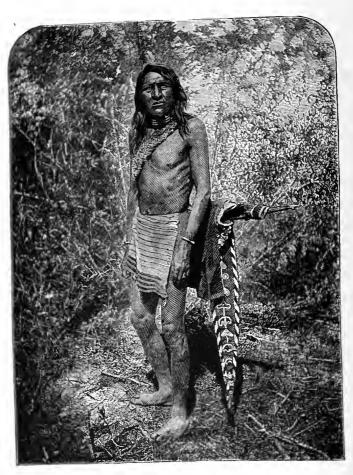
and fertile islands within easy reach of the mainland, where ships could stop and take in supplies of food and water. Putting together all these differences, and remembering that the voyage from Asia to America was twice as long as that from Europe, we can see that those European nations who could sail their ships on the Atlantic were almost sure to be the colonizers of America.

Another point to be noticed is that, as the coast line of America runs almost directly north and south, there was the greatest possible difference of latitude, and therefore of climate, between the various parts of the coast. Besides this, there were other points of difference between the various parts of the eastern coast. It was all well supplied with rivers and harbors, and none of it fenced in by mountains. But the most northerly part was cold and barren, and unlikely to tempt either colonists or traders. Then a long stretch of coast going southward from the river Orinoco was unhealthy, and the land could hardly be traversed, partly for fear of wild beasts and partly from the vast growth of forests and underwood; and the rivers, although broad, were so swift as to be difficult to sail up, and full of alligators, and it was unsafe to halt on the banks. To the south of this again there was a tract of fertile land fit for settlements. But as this was much farther from Europe than the more northerly parts, settlers would not be likely to go there as long as any of the country which could be more easily reached was unoccupied. So that the land which was in every way most fit for settlements was that which lay somewhat to the south-west of Europe, stretching from the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the north to the mouth of the Orinoco on the south. This is not all mainland. For from Point Sable at the end of the promontory of Florida where the coast turns northward, to the island of Trinidad where the coast, after winding round the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, again turns south, there is a belt of islands running right across from point to point. And since the widest outlet between any of these islands is less than one hundred miles, men sailing from Europe could hardly fail to light on them before they reached the mainland beyond. And as these islands are fertile and well watered, and have many good harbors, we can see that the possession of them would be a great advantage to any nation attempting to colonize the mainland. For an island, if well supplied with necessaries, is a far more secure position for a small force than any point on the mainland can be; especially for those who can command the sea and have nothing to fear from their neighbors except by land. And men who had once established themselves in these islands could form small settlements and make forts and build fleets, and so use the islands as stepping stones to farther conquests on the mainland. So that whatever civilized nation held these islands held the key of America, and had it in its power to colonize the mainland both to the north and south, and to keep

out other nations, so fur as its resources and the number of settlers that it could spare might allow.

The coast, however, which lies just to the north-west of these islands is that on which the English colonies were placed, and with which therefore we are most concerned. One can easily see that there is no tract along the whole coast of America better supplied with harbors and navigable rivers. It will be seen too that there is no chain of mountains of any importance for nearly three hundred miles inland. Of the nature of the soil, the chief thing to be noticed is that along the greater part of the coast, the most fertile land, or at least that which was best fitted for growing corn and the other necessaries of life, is cut off from the sea by a belt of poorer soil. Thus the general tendency of the settlements was to extend inland, as there were neither mountains nor forests to hinder them, and the rivers offered easy means of carriage. As was said before, the history of the United States is the history of a strip of land along the Atlantic coast; but it is also the history of a movement from that coast toward the west. But it must be remembered that this movement was always an extension and not a migration; that is to say, that it was made not by the inhabitants of the coast leaving their abodes and moving inland, but by new settlers, or those born in America who wanted land, gradually moving westward without losing their connection with the original settlements. Of course, over such a vast tract of country there were great differences in soil and climate, and other respects, but it will be best to speak of these when we come to deal one by one with the history of the separate States.

There is another subject besides the geography of America at which we must look if we would understand in what sort of a country the European colonists had to settle. They found men already dwelling in all those parts of America which they explored, and the character of these inhabitants had a great effect on the colonies. It will be most convenient for our purpose to divide these people into three groups. Firstly, there were those nations who in many things were quite as elever and skilful as any of the inhabitants of Europe, and had as much or more knowledge of many matters, such as farming, road-making, building, carpentry, and working in gold and silver, and who may therefore be fairly called civilized. Then there were those who were not nearly so advanced in those acquirements, but who yet had so much knowledge of many of the useful arts that we must call them at least half-civilized. Lastly, there were those who understood as little of those things as is possible for any nation who live together in settled groups and are at all better than wild beasts, and these we may call savages. These three groups will answer roughly to three geographical divisions. The first group will occupy the whole of the mountain-chain along the west coast, from the south of Peru to the north of Mexico, and will include four nations, the Peruvians, the Muyscans, the Mexicans, and the Tlascalans. But they can only be roughly described as occupying this region, since the Pernyians are separated from the Muyscans and the Muyscans from the Mexicans by wide districts inhabited by tribes of the second, or halfcivilized, class. The Tlascalans were just to the east of Mexico near the



NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN.

coast, and they seem to have been the only important tribe that kept its independence when the Mexicans conquered the rest of the neighboring countries. Besides the interval of country just mentioned between the greater nations, the second group inhabited the whole coast from the mouth of the Orinoco to the north side of the Gulf of Mexico, and all the islands of that coast. The third group, that with which we are most closely concerned, occupied all the country that now forms the territory of the United States, of Canada, and some parts of Mexico.

It must be understood that such a division as this is not like that which is usually made of the nations of Europe and Asia, when they are divided into races or families. For then we may say distinctly that a nation is Teutonic, or Celtic, or Slavonic, or it may be a mixture of Celtic and Teutonic. But in our division of the natives of America into three groups. some tribes are just on the line between the groups, so that one person might place them in one group and another in another, and it would be difficult to say whether a particular nation was at the bottom of one class or at the top of another. This being so, we have no names by which exactly to describe each of the three groups. With the first this need cause no difficulty, for it includes only four nations, and we shall seldom have occasion to speak of them as forming one class. With the others the case is different; for they are made up of so many small and scattered tribes, each with a name of its own, that it would be quite impossible to deal with them without some name which takes in the whole group. The name which was given by the first settlers to all the natives alike, and which has come down to our own time, is Indians, while the third group, or at least the chief part of it, is distinguished as Red Indians. This name of Indians grew out of a mistake made by the early voyagers as to the geography of America. For, knowing nothing of the western side of America, and very little of the eastern parts of Asia, they had no idea that these were separated by a vast

ocean, but believed that they were all parts of one country, and this they called The Indies. Then, for the sake of clearness, they called what they believed to be the two sides of this coast, The East and West Indies, according as they were reached from Europe by sailing east or west. Soon after its discovery the mainland got the name of America from an Italian, Amerigo Vespucci, who was one of the first voyagers thither. But those parts which alone were known to the first discoverers, namely, the islands outside the Mexican Gulf, still kept the name of The West Indies, and keep it to this day. And though we have so far got rid of this mode of



AMERIGO VESPUCCI,

speaking that we never make use of the name of India except for a particular part of Asia, we still keep the old use, not only in the name of the West Indies, but when we speak of the East India Company and the East India Trade, and the like. And the name Indian now usually means a native of America, not of India itself. It will be most convenient to give this name to our third group, and to call them simply Indians, and when we have occasion to speak of the second group to call them the Indians of South America, or of the Islands as the case may be. Only it must be remembered

that this way of speaking, like many others in history, which it is im-

possible to avoid, had its origin in a mistake.

Our knowledge of the first of these three groups comes almost wholly from Spanish writers, who describe the conquest of America by Spain. These writers seldom cared to inquire into the history and customs of the natives, except so far as they have something to do with the conquest. Thus, as the Muyscans and Tlascalans were never conquered at a single stroke like the Mexicans and Peruvians, we hear but little of them. Tlascalans differed from the others in their government, which was much more free, and they seem to have been the bravest and most warlike of all the civilized nations of America. The other three nations were all alike in two important points. Each was governed by a hereditary line of monarchs, and each believed that in former times some man of a superior race had visited them and taught them their religion and many of their arts. All of them seem to have been as well supplied with the comforts of life as any of the nations of Europe in that age. They were skilful husbandmen, and built good houses and richly decorated temples, and in their dress they studied both ornament and comfort, and they worked eleverly with gold and silver and precious stones. In one of the most useful arts, that of roadmaking, the Mexicans and Pernvians were both far in advance of the Europeans of that age. For though both countries were woody and mountainous, there were roads between all the great cities, and in Peru there was a great high road as wonderful as any work ever made by human hands. It was nearly two hundred miles long, and in places it was earried by galleries and terraces and staircases along the side of precipices; and steep ravines were either filled up with masonry or had hanging bridges thrown across them. On all the great roads, both in Peru and Mexico, there were stations at short intervals, with messengers, kept by the government, who ran from one to the other. In this way, without the use of steam or horses, messages, and even goods, could be sent at the rate of two hundred miles a day. So that it is said that, though the city of Mexico was two hundred miles inland, yet fish from the sea was served at the Emperor's table only twenty-four hours after it was caught. In the art of fortification they seem to have been little, if at all, behind Europeans. For near Cuzeo, the great city of Peru, was a fortress twelve hundred feet long, all built of finely-wrought stones closely fitted together without mortar, and this was joined to the city by underground galleries. They also understood how to make the best of naturally strong places by building their fortresses on the edge of precipices, and cutting away rocks so as only to leave a steep face. The Tlascalans had inclosed their whole country with a wall, and its entrance was so arranged that any one coming in was liable to be shot at by archers and spearmen, who were themselves behind the wall. In Peru and Mexico all the public buildings, the temples and palaces and market-places and gardens, were larger and in many ways more beautiful than anything of the kind in Europe. What makes all this the more wonderful is that the people had no knowledge of the use of iron, nor any wheeled carriages, nor beasts of burden able to bear any great weight, so that everything had to be done by men's hands with scarcely any help.

Though the Peruvians and Mexicans were in many ways alike, still there were points in which they differed widely, and to understand these we must consider the two nations separately. The country of Peru formed a strip of land along the west coast about three thousand miles long and four or five hundred broad; a great part of this is occupied by high mountains.

But the valleys between, and even parts of the mountain slopes, were fertile, and everything was done by watering and skilful husbandry to make the best of the soil, and all the country except the very highest ground was thickly peopled. The inhabitants were probably the most civilized of all the nations of Amer-



ANCIENT MOUND.

ica, and in one way at least they were the most remarkable of all the races of the earth of whom we know anything. There is no people told of in history who lived so completely according to the will of their rulers, and who had all the arrangements of their life and all their doings so completely settled for them. They were governed by a hereditary line of Emperors, called Incas. These Incas were believed to be, and probably were, of a different race from the rest of the Peruvians; and the Inca nobility, the kindred of the Emperor, held all the great offices, and seemed to have been the only persons who enjoyed any kind of freedom. All the land was divided into three parts—one for the Sun, whom they worshipped as a god, another for the Inca, and the rest for the nation. The first two shares were cultivated by all the people working together, and then they were free to till their own land. This third portion was from time to time divided into lots, and one of these lots given to every man in the nation, a larger or smaller lot according to the number of his family, to be held till the land was again divided. All the produce of the country besides what was grown on the soil was got from the mines and from beasts, wild and tame. All these belonged to the Inca, and all the labor of getting in the produce and making it into useful articles was done by the people working without pay as his servants. Then from the stores so procured such things as were needed by the people, clothes and the like, were served out as they were wanted. As the land allotted to each man was only enough to feed

himself and his family, no one could have any property except his house and land; and there was no buying and selling, and no man could grow rich except the Inca or his kindred, who were freed from work and perhaps had estates of their own. But though the people lived in this way, little better than slaves, they seem to have been well off for all bodily comforts, and to have been most carefully watched over by the Incas, that none might be overworked and all well cared for in old age and sickness. As there was no trade, and no one except the Inca and his chief nobles had anything to do with the government, the only things besides manual labor in which the mass of the people were concerned were religion and war. Their religion consisted for the most part of the worship of the Sun. They had indeed other gods, but the Sun was by far the most important. As we have seen, a third of the land was set aside for the Sun, and the produce was used to maintain a great number of priests, and to provide great public festivals, at which wine and food were offered to their god. This worship of the Sun may be said to have been in a manner the object for which the nation existed. For all its wars, like those of the Mohammedans, were made to extend the religion of the nation and to force other people to worship as they did. Yet their religion seems to have done very little towards quickening their minds, nor do their priests seem to have had much influence over them, nor to have taught them to think about matters of right and wrong. Indeed in general it would seem as if the Peruvians had very little power of thinking. For, even in those arts in which they excelled, they do not seem to have had any turn for invention, or for anything more than doing well and carefully what their fathers had done before them. Moreover, as everything was done for them by the Incas, and no man could get rich by his own skill or wit, or in any way advance himself, a clever man was no better off than a stupid one, and there was nothing to sharpen men's powers and to teach them to act and think for themselves. Such an empire, however great and powerful it might seem, rested on no sure foundation. For if any mischance befell the Inca, the whole empire was left helpless, and the different parts of it had no power of protecting themselves. For though the skill of the Peruvians in fortification and making weapons and the like might enable them to conquer neighboring nations who were backward in such things, yet this would profit them little against civilized enemies. The very size of the empire too was a source of weakness: for it is always hard to manage and guard the distant frontier of a great empire, especially when it is made up of newly-conquered, and perhaps unfriendly, provinces. For in such there will almost always be some disobedience and some remains of hatred; and a crafty enemy will make use of these, and so turn the strength of the empire against itself and almost conquer it by the hands of its own subjects.

The Mexicans, although in some ways like the Peruvians, differed from them in many important points. Though under the government of a single



IDOL FROM CENTRAL AMERICA.

ruler, they enjoyed far greater freedom in the general affairs of life. Men bought and sold and got wealth, and rich merchants occupied positions of great dignity in the state. In handicrafts they were perhaps scarcely equal to the Peruvians; but in other and more important matters they were far

ahead of them. For while the Peruvians had no alphabet, and nothing of the kind better than knots tied on pieces of string as tokens, the Mexicans had a system of writing, in which they did not use letters, but signified things by pictures and emblems. The priests also, who were the most learned class among them, had gone far in the knowledge of astronomy. Their religion, unlike that of the Peruvians, seems to have had a great influence on their conduct, and dwelt much on their good and bad deeds and the importance of right and wrong in the sight of God; and it taught them to humble themselves and make amends for their sins by fasts and penances. But there was one feature in their religion which quite outweighed any good that it might have done. For they sacrificed men, and that not on rare occasions, but commonly and in great numbers, and feasted solemnly on their flesh. They were fierce and cruel in their dealings with the neighboring countries, and some of these they had overcome, and others, like Tlascala, were still independent and at war with them. people were a far abler and less slavish race than the Peruvians, the empire was beset by the same danger. For its frontier was threatened alike by unfaithful subjects and open enemies.

Of our second group, the people of the islands and the neighboring mainland, it is not needful to say much. They were divided into many small tribes living in separate villages, each governed by a chief or cacique of its own, and having little to do with one another either in the way of friendship or of war. They dwelt in stone houses, and lived chiefly by tillage, depending but little either on hunting or fishing. They seem to have had most of the comforts of life and to have shown some skill in handicrafts; but, scattered as they were in small groups, they could accomplish nothing like the great works and buildings of Mexico and Peru. They were kindly and well-disposed people, peaceable among themselves and hospitable to strangers. But they were weak in body and mind, and in no way fit to resist an enemy that came against them in any force. For they had neither the strength of the civilized man which lies in fortresses and military engines, nor that of the savage in hardihood and cunning and being able to leave his home at a moment's notice and plunge into the forest. So these islanders were at the mercy of any civilized nation that attacked them, and might almost be called born slaves.

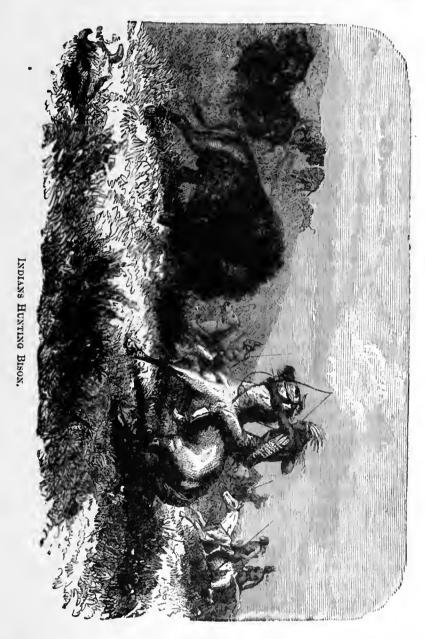
The third group contains those with whom the English settlers had to deal, and it is needful that we should have a clear idea of what manner of people they were. In judging of what they were when the settlers came among them, we must be careful not to be misled by those who have only seen them in later times; for those white men who have had most to do with the Indians have been traders whose only object was to make money out of them, and who have seldom scrupled to cheat and injure them. Even the missionaries, and those who wished well to the Indians. have for the most part only seen them after the traders had brought in drunkenness and other vices, and taught them to distrust all white men as enemies and knaves, so that we can only learn the real character of the Indians from the first explorers who saw them before any white men had come among them, and from those travelers who have been in districts where the traders had scarcely made their way. The account that we have from these writers is very different from, and on the whole much more favorable than, that generally given. Nothing could be more different than the life of these northern nations from that of the civilized races of America. The Indians were divided into a vast number of tribes, the largest of which numbered about forty or fifty thousand, while most of them were much smaller. Each of these tribes had its own territory, and was quite independent of the rest, and only in one instance do they seem to have attempted to unite in larger bodies. In the northern countries on each side of the Canadian lakes there was a league or confederacy, consisting at one time of five and at another of six of the most powerful and warlike nations. But this seems to have been the only attempt of the kind. All the tribes of any size were subdivided into villages, which were almost independent, each managing its own affairs under its own chief. Each tribe was governed by a hereditary head chief, but, as is always the case where there are no written laws and scarcely a fixed system of government, the authority of these head chiefs varied greatly. An able and ambitious chief was really the king of the nation, and arranged matters after his own will; but with a weak or easy-tempered head, the under-chiefs, or sachems, as they were called, governed their own villages much as they pleased. In no case, however, did the chief either of a tribe or of a nation govern by his own arbitrary will, but all important matters were settled by public meetings, at which every man renowned either for wisdom or courage was entitled to be heard. As might be supposed, a people living in this scattered fashion had none of the arts of life but in the simplest and rudest forms. They tilled the soil, after a fashion, and grew scanty crops of corn and vegetables; but this labor was considered disgraceful and left entirely to the women; they knew nothing about building in stone, but lived, some in huts made of timber daubed with mud, such as is sometimes used now in rude farm-buildings, and most of them in tents made of poles and skins. Yet it seems as if they neglected all useful industry rather because their mode of life did not need it, and could not indeed have been much bettered by it, than from any incapacity. For they showed themselves in no way unskilful in those few handicrafts to which they did apply themselves. Living in a country full of lakes and rivers, they needed boats, and these they made with great skill. Some tribes indeed hollowed them out of single logs by a slow and toilsome

process, but others made them of wicker-work covered with birch bark skilfully sewn together. Many of their articles, such as hatchets, bows. lances, shields and pipes, were cleverly constructed, and often tastefully ornamented; and they showed great skill in dressing skins for their clothes, and decorating their robes and head-dresses with feathers. As the woods swarmed with game, which gave them all they wanted in the way of food and clothing, it is not easy to see what need they had for mechanical arts, or



PRAIRIE DOGS.

in what way such knowledge would have made them happier. For we must not suppose that the degraded and unhappy life which they have been seen leading in modern times is anything like their natural condition. contrary, they seem to have been a remarkably happy and cheerful people, fond of amusements and games, and clever in contriving them. Besides the games of ball in which the whole tribe joined, they had public dances and sham fights, both conducted with regular movements, which could only be learned by careful study and drill. One matter in which all the tribes seemed to have resembled one another more or less, was their religion. various points of difference, and some tribes had different modes of worship from others, yet all alike believed in one supreme God, or Great Spirit, as they called him. They believed that he watched all their actions and rewarded and punished them, and they sought to please him by penances and prayers and fastings, and by great public feasts, though not, as it seems, by human sacrifices as the Mexicans did. They also believed that men would live again after death, and be happy or miserable according as they deserved well or ill in this world. Though they were so far behind the



other nations of America in mechanical skill, yet in sagacity and political cleverness they were probably in advance of them; for, living as they did in small bodies, where each man had a voice in affairs, every man's wits were called out to the utmost, and no one was suffered to become a mere machine. Their two chief pursuits, hunting and war, had the same effect. Fox hunt-

ing, especially when done not for sport but to get food, not only makes men strong and active and quickens their eyesight, but teaches them readiness and patience. And their system of war was not like that of civilized soldiers, where only one man in a thousand has to think and the rest have little more to do than to obey, but they went out in small parties, sometimes of two or three; and there was scarcely any hand-to-hand fighting, but everything lay in outwitting and surprising the enemy. They did not think mere strength and courage without wit enough for a ruler, for in many tribes there were two chiefs, one to govern in peace and the other to lead in war; and in some cases chiefs who had lost the use of their limbs, but whose wisdom was highly valued, still kept their power, and we even read of women chiefs. Speaking generally, they seem to have been good friends and dangerous foes, kind and hospitable to strangers so long as they suspected no guile, but utterly merciless when they had once begun a quarrel. For of their faults cruelty was by far the worst, and in war they spared neither women nor children, and not content with killing their prisoners, they put them to dreadful tortures. Yet it must be said that, if they were ready to inflict torture, they were likewise ready to bear it; and indeed an Indian prisoner would have felt insulted if he had been merely but to death without a chance of showing what tortures he could undergo quietly. Nor must we forget that it is only quite lately that civilized men have ceased to inflict sufferings on one another fully as great, both in war and in the execution of cruel laws.

Such a people as this, one can easily see, would be stubborn foes for any strangers to deal with. Their country too was ill-suited for civilized troops. For as there were no cities or storehouses, and scarcely any crops, it would be hardly possible for large bodies of men who did not know the country to maintain themselves. Moreover, the two great advantages which civilized men possess in war, horses and fire-arms, would be of much less value in such a country. For among rivers and forests horses are of little use, and, without horses and wagons to carry ammunition, fire-arms lose half their value. So, altogether, settlers in such a country might look for a very different resistance from that to be found in the islands, or even in Peru and Mexico.

It has been necessary to say as much as this about the various races of natives, for without having a clear idea of them we cannot understand the differences that there were between the various European Colonies.



## CHAPTER II.

THE EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA DURING THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

N studying the discovery of America and the first attempts at settlement there, two things must always be borne in mind. In the first place, it is really not at all easy to understand how enormous a difference the discovery of America made to the world. We are so familiar with the world as it is, that it is difficult to imagine it as it seemed to those who lived in the fifteenth century. We must remember that not only was America then undiscovered, but other large parts of the world,

as we know it, were either actually unknown, or known only in a hazy and uncertain fashion. We must remember too that only a few specially learned and far-sighted men had any idea that there were other lands beyond those that they knew. So that the discovery of America was not like the exploration of a new country which is believed to exist, but of whose nature men are ignorant; it was, as it is often called, the discovery of a New World, of a world whose existence was never suspected by most men. And we can best understand how great a change this must have seemed by looking at a map of the world as it really is, and at one of the world as it was then supposed to be.

In the second place, we must remember that, like many things of which we are apt to speak as if they had been done at a single stroke, the discovery of America was really a very gradual process. Columbus himself, the first discoverer, possibly never knew that he had found a new Continent; and many years passed before men fully understood how America stood to the rest of the world. This ignorance of what lay beyond had a great deal to do with the adventurous spirit in which the men of that age went to America. For the further they went the more wonderful the New World became; and even when the bounds of it had been reached, there was nothing to tell them that there were not things more marvellous beyond.

Before the end of the fifteenth century, the only nations of Europe that had made much progress in seamanship were the Portuguese and the Italians. The Portuguese were the most enterprising voyagers, and had sailed along the coast of Africa and to the Canary Islands. But the Italians seem to have been the most scientific geographers and the most far-seeing

about the unknown portions of the world. There does not, however, seem to have been much zeal about voyages of discovery in Italy itself, and

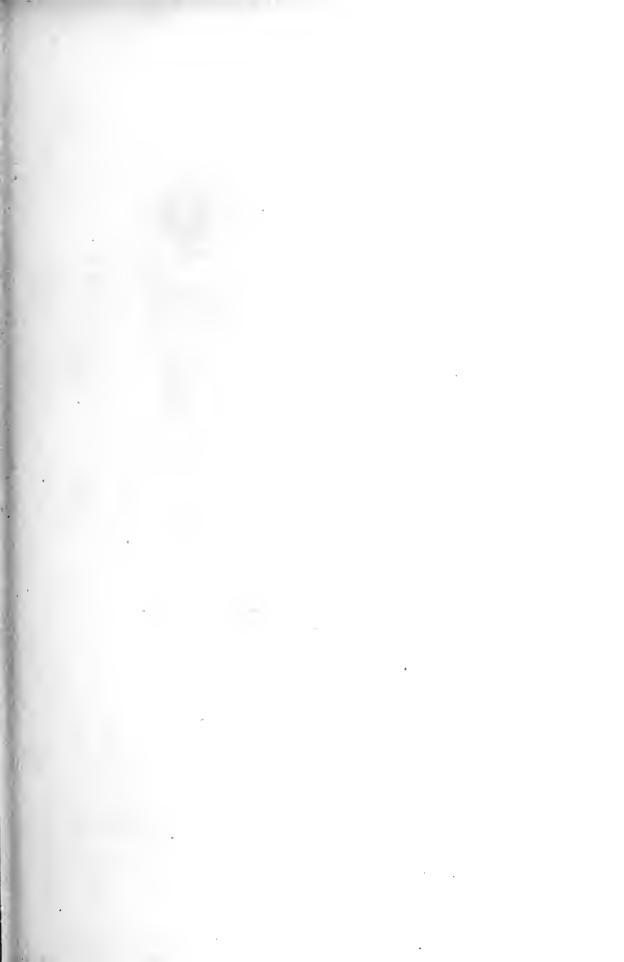


CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

all the great Italian navigators of that age made their discoveries in the ships of other countries. Of these navigators Christopher Columbus was the first and greatest. Whether he hoped by sailing to the west to discover a new continent, or only to get a direct route to Eastern Asia, it is hard to sav. Whatever his scheme may have been, he had no small trouble to get the means for trying it. For after spending some eight years in seeking to persuade various sovereigns and great men to employ him in a voyage of discovery, he at last with great difficulty got what he wanted from the sovereigns of Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella. On the 3d of August, 1492, he sailed with three ships, and on the 12th

of October landed on the island which the Spaniards afterwards called Hispaniola, and we now St. Domingo. Here they later founded a town, and named it St. Salvador, and Spanish settlements soon spread over the island. But it was about twenty years before they extended to the neighboring islands or the mainland.

The next great discovery was made four years later. In 1497, Sebastian Cabot, a Genoese by descent, but born and bred in England, set sail from Bristol with a ship manned by Englishmen, and discovered Newfoundland and all the coast north of Florida. Thus, though Columbus discovered the islands, Cabot was the first European who is known for certain to have sailed to the mainland of America. On the strength of his voyage, England for a long while after put forward a special claim to the land to which he had sailed. In that age it was customary for such adventurers to obtain a patent from the sovereign of the country from which they sailed. This patent was a document giving various privileges, such as the right of importing merchandise free of duty, and often granting some authority over any land that might be discovered. Cabot had obtained such a patent before his first voyage, and on his return he procured a fresh one, and made a second voyage, of which no details are known. In 1501 three Bristol mer-

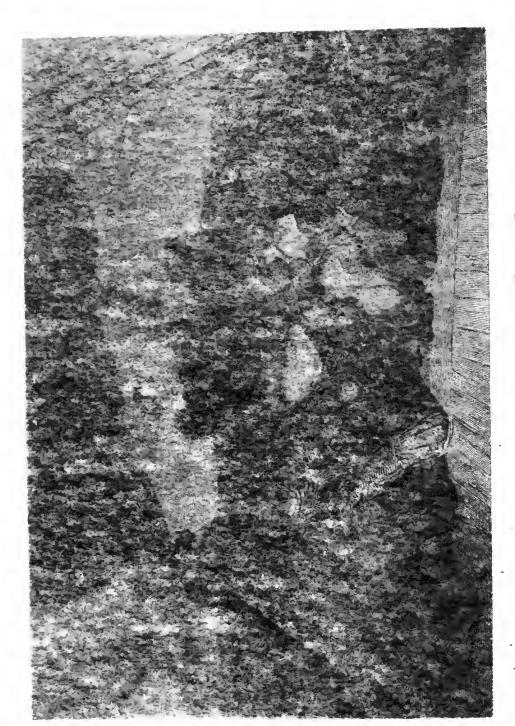




In Sight of the Now Mostell

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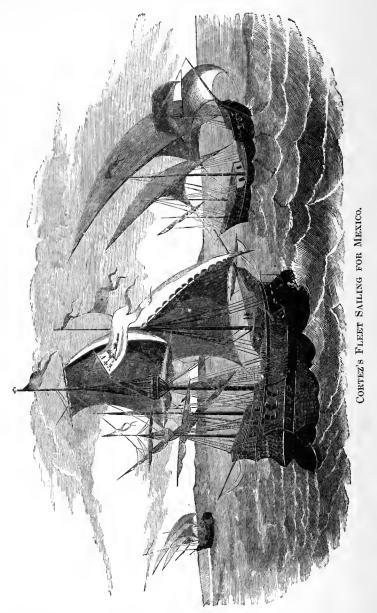
For the first twenty years the Spain ter hope dimension in a star lingua iola, and only a few unimper test with most more costs to the manifold of on the neighboring is and a settlement. but only stations for per the second of the table flat any great attempt was made on the same and To the Land Velasquez, the governor of Hispaniola, sent out did not return so south a to some at a larger expedition to bout five hundred met or spaniard and our bushed helder to command of this expension of the trop to the same to the comment of the comment o three, who had disting the contract to part to part to tron on the main well by the more bold me, unported the be reached the man of the get fillings of the generally Mexico. Hearing that the people were heathers and have resolved to discrepant be orders, and with his small ferror to city and competed to go obstaches a. Christians and a second of Spain as there beg. He needs allies of the ention of the rections



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chants and three Portuguese obtained a patent from the English king, and it seems likely that some voyages were made about this time, but nothing certain is known about them. In any case, it did not seem as if England was likely to take a leading part in the settlement of America—for at that time she was quite unfit for any great undertakings on the sea. She had no large ships or skilful seamen, and, except a few boats that sailed north for fish from Bristol and other ports in the west, all her merchandise was carried in foreign vessels. And Henry VII., who then reigned, was a cautious and somewhat miserly king, and very unlikely to risk anything for an uncertain So, looking at all the nations of Europe, it seemed as if Spain alone was likely to do anything important in America. The Portuguese were taken up with their voyages to the coast of Africa, and the French seemed fully occupied at home. For though Verrazani, another Italian navigator, was sent out by the king of France, Francis I., and made great discoveries on the American coast, yet France was too much taken up with her long and unsuccessful war with Spain for these discoveries to be followed further. Soon after that the country was torn to pieces with civil wars, and had no time for distant enterprises. Thus during the sixteenth century France had very little to do with the colonization of America. There were, moreover, many things in the character and temper of the Spaniards which specially fitted them for such a task. For many years they had been engaged in almost continuous war with the Moors, and this had given them a great love of adventure for its own sake, and a great desire for preaching Christianity to the heathen, and, if necessary, for forcing them to accept it. And it required some strong passions like these to make men face all the dangers which lay before them in the New World.

For the first twenty years the Spaniards kept almost entirely to Hispaniola, and only a few unimportant settlements were made on the mainland or on the neighboring islands, and most of them were not regular settlements, but only stations for pearl-fishing. It was not till 1518 that any great attempt was made on the mainland. In that year, Velasquez, the governor of Hispaniola, sent out a small fleet to explore the mainland. As this fleet did not return so soon as he expected, he sent out a larger expedition, with about five hundred and fifty Spaniards and three hundred Indians. command of this expedition was given to Hernando Cortez, a man of thirtythree, who had distinguished himself by courage and sagacity in an expedition on the mainland, but had never held any important office. Soon after he reached the mainland he got tidings of the great empire and city of Mexico. Hearing that the people were heathens and had much gold, he resolved to disregard his orders, and with his small force to march to the city and compel the people to become Christians and acknowledge the King of Spain as their lord. He made allies of the nations by the way, subduing some by arms and persuading others, and causing all of them to be baptized. But naturally these new-made allies were of no great value, and could not be trusted in time of need, and all that Cortez could really depend on were his five hundred and fifty Spaniards. With these and some of the others he



marched into the city of Mexico. There he established himself, and was at first received by the people as the friend of their emperor, and dwelt in one of the palaces, and before long forced the emperor himself to live there as a sort of state prisoner. The Mexicans soon resented this, and open war broke

out. After various changes of fortune, and being once driven out of the city, in 1521 Cortez finally conquered Mexico. He had by that time received more than one reinforcement from home, but these only filled the places of those whom he had lost, so that at the last he had less than six hundred Spaniards with whom to conquer the great empire. Such a force would have been utterly unequal to the task but for three things. They had horses and fire-arms, neither of which the natives had ever seen; and in Cortez himself they had one of the wisest and bravest captains that ever To conquer such an empire with such a force was a wonderful exploit, but there were many things which made it even more wonderful than it seems. For Cortez had no authority from the governor of Hispaniola for what he was doing, and was in constant dread of being recalled. One Narvaez was actually sent out with a fresh force to bring him back. But Cortez defeated Narvaez and joined this force to his own, and so turned what was meant for a hindrance into a help. Not only was his force small, but the men were such as he could hardly trust; nor was there anything in the former deeds of Cortez to put his soldiers in awe of him or to give them confidence in his success. So little faith indeed had he in their loyalty, that he sunk his fleet to guard against any chance of their deserting him. Tlascalans too, and the other native allies, were but an uncertain support, and apt to fail him when things went badly with him and he most needed their aid. But what was more wonderful still, and far more honorable to Cortez, was that he not only conquered Mexico, but having conquered it, ruled it well, and protected the natives against the Spaniards. Not indeed that he, any more than the rest of his countrymen, was perfectly free from blame. In establishing his power he did things which we in this day should deem atrociously cruel. But these were all done in establishing Christianity and Spanish rule, things which Cortez firmly believed to be for the good of the Mexicans. They were not done, like many of the Spanish cruelties elsewhere from lust of gold or in mere wantonness. Moreover, after the war had once begun, the Mexicans, unlike the natives elsewhere, provoked the Spaniards by acts of great ferocity. When we consider what it is to keep men in order who have just won a great victory and are all claiming their reward, and how completely the other Spanish conquerors failed in this matter, we see that Cortez was something far more than a great general. Through his efforts the state of the natives was always far better in Mexico than in the other Spanish provinces.

Immediately after the conquest of Mexico the other great Spanish conquest took place, which we may say gave Spain possession of South America. In 1512, one Balboa, a man of great wisdom and courage, had set out from Darien, one of the earliest Spanish settlements on the east coast, and marched across the Isthmus of Panama, and had seen the Pacific Ocean

and heard of the rich lands beyond. But he quarreled with the governor of Darien, and was put to death as a traitor, and for the time nothing came of his discoveries. In 1525, Francis Pizarro, a kinsman of Cortez, who no doubt had the conquest of Mexico before his eyes as an example, undertook



THE PACIFIC.

an expedition to the south. He sailed along the west coast and landed in the territory of Peru, and in about nine years completely overthrew the Peruvian empire. Though, as far as mere daring and skill in war go, Pizarro was little if at all behind Cortez, in other respects he was far inferior. For Cortez undertook a task the like of which no man had ever attempted, and he persuaded his men to follow him in what must have seemed a hopeless and almost a mad enterprise. But Pizarro throughout had the example of Cortez to en. courage himself and his followers. Pizarro too was well Balboa wades in befriended at home and provided with men and supplies, while Cortez had almost as much to fear from his country-

men behind him as from the enemy in front. After the conquest the real difference was yet more fully shown. For Cortez not only overthrew a great empire, but he succeeded in the harder task of establishing a fresh government in its place, and that among a people of whose history and character he knew but little. But Pizarro atterly failed in this respect. He was himself murdered by conspirators, and the settlers fought amongst themselves, and rebelled against the governors that were sent out from Spain, and for a while Peru was utterly torn to pieces with conspiracies and civil wars, so that it was nearly twenty years before the country was brought into any kind of order.

In the meantime, and after this, other discoveries and conquests were made by the Spaniards, which in any other age would have seemed wonderful, but which were overshadowed by these two great exploits. Those we may pass over, taking the cases of Mexico and Peru as specimens of the Spanish conquests. One thing, however, must be noticed. Hitherto the islands had been the great centre of all activity and enterprise among the Spanish settlers. But now the islands became less important, and Mexico and Peru served as two fresh starting-points from which discoveries and conquests were made. This may have had some effect on the English settlements by preventing the Spaniards from occupying the land which they afterwards colonized. For men sailing from the islands would be far more likely to settle on the northern coast than if they made their way inland from Mexico. The attempts that were made in that direction did not meet with such success as to encourage further efforts. In 1512 one Ponce de Leon had explored Florida in search of a fountain whose water was supposed to give endless life. But instead of finding the fountain, he was killed in an

affray with the natives. During the next thirty years the Spaniards made other expeditions into Florida, but they all ended unluckily, either through the hostility of the natives or the difficulties of the country. The fate of these adventurers leads one to think that Cortez and Pizarro might have fared very differently if they had tried their fortunes anywhere to the north of the Gulf of Mexico.

In 1562 the first attempt was made by another European nation to follow the example of Spain. A number of French Protestants settled on the coast of Florida. Many of them were disorderly and lawless, and a party of these got possession of two ships without the leave of Laudonnière, the governor, and betook themselves to piracy. The colony was soon exposed to dangers from without as well as from within. The Spanish king Philip, a zealous Roman Catholic, resolved not to suffer a Protestant colony to settle on the coast of America, and sent out one Melendez to destroy the French town and establish a Spanish one in its place. He obeyed his orders, fell upon the French and massacred nearly all of them, and founded a Spanish town, which he named St. Augustine. Two years later, this massacre was avenged by a French captain, Dominic de Gourgues. At his own expense he fitted out a fleet and sailed to Florida. There he surprised the Spanish settlement, and put to death the greater part of the inhabitants. But this success was not followed up by the French, and Spain kept possession of the country. Dreadful as these doings were, England may be said in some measure to have gained by them. The massacre of the French settlers may have done something to withhold their countrymen from trying their fortunes in the New World, and so may have helped to keep the country open for English colonists. So too De Gourgues' expedition may have taught the Spaniards some caution in dealing with the settlements of other nations. After this, St. Augustine continued to be the furthermost point occupied by the Spaniards in that direction. Two voyages of discovery were made towards the north, but nothing came of them, and all the coast beyond Florida was left open to fresh settlers. The Spaniards were fully taken up with their exploits in the south, and had no leisure for exploring the country where there were no gold mines, and no great empires or cities to be conquered.

Conquests like these could not be accomplished without great suffering to the natives. For though it was some time before the Spanish government openly and professedly allowed the Indians to be used as slaves, and though it never gave the settlers full liberty to do as they pleased with them, yet in most of the colonies the natives were from the very beginning completely at the mercy of the Spaniards. Ten years after the discovery of Hispaniola, the natives began to decrease so in numbers that the settlers found it necessary to import slaves from other islands. For they were set to work in the

mines and the fields in a manner for which they were wholly unfit. With out going through all the sufferings inflicted on them, we may form some idea of what they underwent from the fact that many killed themselves, as the only means of escaping their tormentors. But though the sufferings of the Indians were so great as fully to outweigh any good that was done by the conquest, we must not be too ready to blame the whole Spanish nation. For the men who went to the Spanish settlements were the very dregs, not only of Spain, but of almost every country in Europe, who flocked thither in quest of adventure and gain. And we must not think that this tyranny



SPANISH ADVENTURER.

was any special wickedness peculiar to the Spaniards. For from none of the settlers did the natives suffer more than from a colony of Germans, to whom the king of Spain had given a grant of land in America. And there was at least one class of Spaniards who were not merely free from blame in this matter, but deserve the highest praise. For all that could be done to protect the natives and to bring their griev-

ances before the government in Spain, and to improve their condition in every way, was done by the clergy. It is scarcely too much to say that no class of men ever suffered so much and toiled so unsparingly for the good of their fellow-creatures, as the Spanish priests and missionaries in America. The Spanish government, too, strove to protect the natives, and not wholly without success. But Spain was at that time

completely taken up with European affairs, and had not leisure enough for a subject of such importance and difficulty. For there could not be a harder task than to restrain such men as the conquerors of Mexico and Peru. They were for the most part reckless men, and their success had increased their confidence, and every one of them felt that Spain owed him a debt greater than she could ever pay, and most of them were ready to rebel at the least provocation. On various occasions the Spanish government sent out orders strictly forbidding the enslavement of the natives, but was obliged either to withdraw or relax this rule for fear of a rebellion among the settlers.

Another great source of mischief was that one cruel or treacherous act would make the inhabitants of a whole district enemies to all strangers, and so introduce war, which was always the forerunner of slavery and oppres-

Thus one unprincipled man could do an amount of evil which no wisdom or moderation afterwards could repair. What lay at the root of all this evil was the great rapidity with which the conquest was carried out. For there are few tasks which need more experience and forethought than the government of a newly-conquered country. Without a careful study of the people, and knowledge of their habits and ideas, such a task is a hopeless one. Yet here the Spaniards were suddenly called on to govern a vast country, whose very existence they had not dreamed of forty years before. This was due chiefly to the great riches of the natives, and to their weakness. For if Mexico and Peru had either had less wealth to tempt invaders, or if their spoils had been less easy to win, the conquest would in all probability have been far slower and more gradual. In that case the Spaniards would have been able to learn more about the people with whom they were dealing, and would have had more sympathy with them. Then probably the conquest of Mexico would have been done bit by bit, like the English conquest of India; and although it might have been attended by much evil, it would have had many good results too, instead of being, as it was, almost an unmixed curse both to the conquerors and the conquered.

While all these things were being done, it seemed as if England was not about to take any part in the settlement of the New World. Only one or two voyages had been made hither, and these had been so disastrous that there was very little encouragement to others to follow. In 1527 one Albert de Prado, a foreign priest living in England, sailed out with two ships. We know that the voyagers reached Newfoundland, since letters still exist sent home thence by them; but after that nothing more is known of them. In 1536 another expedition set out, commanded by one Hore, a gentleman of London. This voyage is somewhat remarkable, not for anything that was accomplished, but because it seems to have been the first of any importance that Englishmen undertook entirely without foreign help. Landing far north, they suffered great hardships, and were on the very point of killing and eating one of their own number, but were saved by the appearance of another ship well victualled. This they seized, and so returned to England. Such a voyage was not likely to encourage Englishmen to pursue adventure in America, and for some time we hear of no more attempts. But in the meantime a great deal was being done towards fitting England to play her part in the settlement of America. During the past eighty years trade had increased greatly, as is shown by the number of commercial treaties with foreign towns, and of corporations of English merchants in many of the great European cities, and foreign trade was almost sure to bring the pursuit of navigation with it. Moreover, Henry VIII. did a great deal to further this. For though his misdeeds in other ways were very great, yet, when his passions did not lead him astray, he

was a wise king, and one that sought the good of his country; and he clearly saw that the strength of England must lie in her ships. And all those great deeds that were done by Englishmen in the reign of his daughter Elizabeth, both on the seas and in distant lands, were in a great measure due to Henry's energy and foresight. For he not only built large ships, but he saw that ships, however good, would be useless without skilled seamen; and he founded three colleges on the model of one that already existed in Spain to train up pilots and sailors. Though this bore no great fruit in his lifetime, the good of it was seen in the next generation; for in 1549, in the reign of Henry's son Edward, Sebastian Cabot, who, it may be said, was



the first great English navigator, was made Grand Pilot of England, and planned great enterprises. English ships soon began to sail in every quarter, and England became as great on the sea as either Portugal or Spain. Voyages were made to Guinea to trade in gold and precious stones, and unhappily too in negro And great discoveries were made in the northern seas. For English ships sailed round the northern point of Norway and to Archangel, and Englishmen traveled by this way to the Russian court

at Moscow, and even to Persia. But as yet nothing was done in the direction of America. When at last a voyage was made hither, it was rather by chance than by design. For, in 1576, Martin Frobisher, a west-country sea-captain, sailed northward, thinking to find a passage to Asia round the northern coast of America. He did not, however, get further than that gulf to the north of Labrador called Frobisher Straits. But though he failed in his main object, he brought back what was more valued than even a passage to Asia would have been. A stone which he had found was reported to contain gold. The stories of the Spanish conquest had set England, like all the rest of Europe, mad after gold; and immediately a company was formed to explore the supposed gold country. Frobisher was sent out again, and came back with a great cargo of what was believed to be orc. Queen Elizabeth then took up the scheme. A third and larger expedition was sent out in fifteen ships, and it was arranged that a hundred men should be left there to form a settlement. In the arrangements for this voyage a mistake was made, which was often repeated afterwards, and which was a serious hindrance to the success, not only of the English colonies, but those of other nations. It was thought that men who were unfit to live at home would do for colonists, and accordingly a number of condemned criminals were sent out. The expedition was an utter failure; the sailors almost mutinied; one of the ships with provisions for the colony deserted, and it was found hopeless to attempt a settlement. The fleet was loaded with ore, and sailed home. The ore proved worthless, and the whole attempt resulted in utter failure and disappointment to all concerned.

By this time there was a fresh motive for Euglish voyages to America. From the beginning of Elizabeth's reign many Englishmen of good family had sailed the seas as pirates, especially attacking Spanish ships. And as English seamen grew more skilful, they ventured to harass the Spanish settlements on the coast of America, and to cut off the Spanish fleets as they came and went. Though many of the greatest and bravest Englishmen of that day took part in these voyages, it is impossible to justify them. Yet there was this much to be said in excuse, that the Spanish Inquisition not unfrequently seized Englishmen on Spanish soil, and punished them for no crime but their religion. It must be remembered too that the pope, who was the close ally of Spain, was ever hatching conspiracies against the Queen of England, and striving to stir up civil wars there, and it could hardly seem a crime to Englishmen to annoy and weaken Spain even by unlawful means. Thus there was much fighting between Englishmen and Spaniards on the seas, and on the American coast, though the countries were not avowedly at war.

In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a west-country gentleman of great learning and wisdom, seems to have bethought him of a scheme for injuring Spain by planting an English settlement on the coast of America to serve as a sort of outpost from which to attack the Spanish fleets. It is not quite; certain that Gilbert was the author of this scheme, but there is great likelihood of it; and it is certain that after this time he got a patent, granting him leave to form a colony in America. He does not seem, however, to have been as skilful in carrying out his designs as in planning them, and this expedition, though sent out at great cost, was a complete failure and he himself a heavy loser. Four years later he renewed his attempt; this time he was somewhat more successful. For though one of his ships deserted him at the very outset, he reached America, landed on the coast of Newfoundland, and took possession of the country in the Queen's name. He made no further attempt at a settlement, partly from the character of his men, who were lawless and disorderly, and thought only of getting on and making attempts at piracy. Before long another ship deserted and reduced the fleet to three, and of these one was wrecked with a load of ore thought to contain gold. Last of all, the smallest vessel, the Squirrel, of only ten tons, in which Gilbert himself sailed, went down, and one ship alone made its way back to England. Though Gilbert's attempt ended in utter failure, yet his name should ever be held in honor as the man who led the way in the English settlement of America, and who forfeited his life in that cause from which his countrymen afterwards gained such honor and reward.

Gilbert's scheme was taken up by a man fitter for such a task. His half-

brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, was probably the greatest Englishman in an age unusually rich in great men. There certainly have been many better men, and there have been men too who were greater in one special way; but there searcely ever has been any one equally distinguished in so many different ways. Of the various careers open to a man in that day-learning, war, statesmanship, navigation-Raleigh pursued all, and excelled in



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

all. As colonization was one of the great undertakings possible in that age, Raleigh entered upon that. There he showed his wisdom beyond all who had gone before him. Except perhaps the French settlers in Florida, no one had thought of planting settlements save with an eye to gold and silver; for Gilbert's was hardly so much a regular settlement as an outpost against Spain. But Raleigh, though he probably had mines in view, yet took care to settle his colony where it might maintain itself by agriculture, and enrich both itself and England by manufacture and trade. In 1584 he obtained a patent in precisely the same terms as Gilbert's, and sent out two sea-captains, Amidas and Barlow, to explore. They landed much further south than Gilbert, where climate and soil were both better. The natives received them with great kindness and hospitality, and two accompanied them back to England. Amidas and Barlow brought home a

glowing account of the land they had found, and the Queen named it Virginia. Next year Raleigh sent out a hundred and eight settlers. Sir Richard Grenville, one of the greatest sea-captains of the age, was in command of the fleet. But he was only to see them established, and then to leave them under the command of Ralph Lane, a soldier of some note. Heriot, a friend of Raleigh, and a man of great scientific learning, was sent out to examine the country. The colony was established in an island called Roanoke, off what is now the coast of North Carolina. At the very outset a mishap occurred which afterwards did no small harm to the settlement. As Grenville was exploring the country, an Indian stole a silver cup from the English. In revenge Grenville, who seems to have been of a severe and somewhat cruel temper, burnt an Indian village. Up to this time the Indians had appeared friendly, but henceforth the settlers had to be on their guard. In August, Grenville sailed home, leaving Lane in full command. Instead of getting his settlement into good order and making arrangements for building houses, growing corn, and the like, Lane almost at once set off with a party in quest of mines. They suffered great hardships, and, after being driven by lack of food to eat their dogs, at length returned without having made any discovery. Lane on his return found his settlement in great danger. The Indians, emboldened by his absence, were plotting against the colony, and would have assailed them unawares, had not one more friendly than the rest disclosed the plot to Lane. Though not a very wise governor, Lane was a bold and able soldier. He at once fell upon the Indians, killing fifteen of them, and thereby prevented an attack. But though the settlers were saved from immediate danger, their prospects were very gloomy. They were suffering from lack of food; the Indians were no longer their friends, and they began to fear that Grenville, who was to have brought them supplies, would not return. While they were in these difficulties, an English fleet appeared on its way back from a raid on the Spanish coast. Drake, the commander of the fleet, fitted out a ship for the settlers with a hundred men and provisions for six months, but just as it was ready a storm arose, and it was driven out to sea. Another attempt was made to send a ship to their relief, but the harborage was insufficient and the attempt was given up. At last the settlers in despair resolved to embark in Drake's fleet, and by the end of July, 1586, they landed in Portsmouth. A few days after they had sailed, a ship reached Virginia, sent out by Raleigh with provisions. After searching in vain for the settlers, it returned to England. About a fortnight later, Grenville arrived with three ships well provisioned. Having spent some time in seeking for the settlement he landed fifteen men with supplies for two years, to keep possession of the country, and sailed home.

All these disappointments did not withhold Raleigh from another and

more determined attempt. In 1587 he sent out a fresh party of settlers. One White was to be governor, with a council of twelve assistants, and the settlement was to be called the City of Raleigh. Hitherto the Indians had



A SHIP OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

received the English in friendship, but now they attacked the settlers at their first landing, and killed one of the assistants. In August two noteworthy events occurred: Manteo, one of the natives who had returned with Amidas and Barlow, was christened; and the wife of one Dare bore a daughter, the first child of English parents born in the New World. Soon

after this, White went to England to get supplies. Raleigh immediately fitted out a fleet under the command of Grenville. Before it could sail, tidings came that the Spanish Armada was ready to attack England, and every ship and sailor that could be put on the sea was needed. Nevertheless Raleigh contrived to send out White with two small vessels. But instead of relieving the colony, the crew betook themselves to piracy against. the Spaniards, and, after sundry mishaps, returned to England without ever having reached Virginia. Raleigh had now spent forty thousand pounds on his Virginia colony, and had got absolutely nothing in return. Moreover, he had just got a large grant of land in Ireland, and needed all his spare time and money for that. Accordingly in March, 1589, he sold all his rights in the Virginia plantation to a company. At the same time he showed his interest in the colony by a gift of one hundred pounds, to be spent in the conversion of the natives. The new company was slow in sending out relief, and nothing was done till late in that year. White then sailed with three ships. This fleet repeated the same folly which had undone the last expedition, and went plundering among the Spanish islands. At last, after much delay, White reached Virginia. The settlers had left the spot where White had placed them, and as had been agreed, they had cut upon a tree the name of the place, Croatan, whither they had gone. There some traces of their goods were seen, but they themselves could not be found anywhere. Though Raleigh had no longer any share in the settlement, he did not cease to take an interest in it, and sent out at least two more expeditions, one as late as 1602, in the bare hope of recovering the colonists, or at least of getting some tidings of them. A vague rumor was afterwards heard that some of them had been taken prisoners by the Indians and kept as slaves, but nothing certain was ever known of them from the day that White left America.

Thus, by the end of the sixteenth century, Spain had on each coast of America a territory several thousand miles in length, with large and beautiful cities, and yielding in gold and silver alone more than sixty thousand pounds a year, while England had not so much as a single fishing-village. Yet the last fifty years had done much towards training Englishmen for the task of colonization. They had learnt familiarity with the sea and with distant lands, and they had discovered that the Spaniards were not, as they had once seemed, invincible. The men who had conquered the Armada, and had even plundered Spanish ships and towns on the American coast, felt that they could surmount difficulties which had not baffled Cortez and Pizarro. Englishmen in the sixteenth century did not establish a single lasting settlement in America, but they did much toward showing how America might be explored and colonized by the next generation.

## CHAPTER HI.

VIRGINIA..

FTER the failure of White's expedition, no further attempt at settlement was made for eighteen years. Gradually, however, new causes arose to make colonization important. Hitherto distant settlements had been planned chiefly to inrich the mother country by mines and trade, or to molest, the Spanish colonies. But now men began to see that the newly discovered lands might be valuable as a home for those who could find neither work nor means of livelihood in England. The beginning of the seventeenth century was

a time when this need was specially felt. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries there had been great pestilences and famines, which had kept down the numbers of the people, and, except during special times of scarcity, there had been no lack of food. But during the sixteenth century the population had increased greatly, and there was neither work nor wages enough for all. Two things especially had helped to cause this. Wool trade and sheep farming had greatly increased, and much land which was formerly tilled had been turned into pasture, and thus many laborers had been thrown out of work. Besides, the breaking up of religious houses by Henry VIII. had cut off another means whereby many were maintained. Thus the land was full of needy and idle men ready for any ill deed. this strait men began to think of the rich and uninhabited lands beyond the sea as offering a support for those who could find none at home. In one way, the prospects of colonization might seem changed for the worse. Elizabeth, who was now dead, had always looked on all distant adventures with favor, and honored and encouraged those who undertook them. But her successor, James, was of a timid temper, and had no pleasure in such things, but rather distrusted them as likely to strengthen the free spirit of his subjects. Moreover, he was specially attached to Spain, and valued its friendship beyond that of any other country. And as the Spaniards always did their utmost to keep any other nation from settling in America, they would not fail to prejudice James against such attempts. One thing, however, helped to reconcile him to schemes for colonization. It was understood from the first that the colonies were entirely under the control of the King and Privy Council, and that Parliament had no power of interfering in their concerns.

As might be expected, with this difference in the temper of the sovereign, the spirit of the nation, or at least, of the leading men in the nation, was somewhat changed too. There were no longer men like Frobisher, and Gilbert, and Grenville, who loved adventure for its own sake, and readily undertook long and costly voyages and risked great dangers, for distant and uncertain hopes of gain. In reality, however, this change was favorable to colonization. For it was the love of adventure and the desire to achieve some brilliant success by discovering mines or unknown seas, or by piracy against the Spaniards, which caused the failure of all the early attempts. So that settlements made with soberer views, though they might not be undertaken so eagerly or promise such brilliant results, were more likely to enjoy lasting success.

In 1602 and the three following years voyages of discovery were sent out. The coast of America to the north of Chesapeake Bay was explored, and a favorable report brought back. The failures of Gilbert and Raleigh showed that a colony was too great an undertaking for a single man to carry out successfully. The northern expeditions in the previous century sent out by the Russian Company had been more prosperous. Accordingly in 1606 a company was formed for the establishment of two settlements in America. .The Northern colony was to be managed by gentlemen and merchants from the west of England; the Southern by Londoners, A charter was obtained from the king granting to each a tract on the coast at whatever spot it chose to settle, the Northern colony between thirty-four and forty-one degrees of latitude, the Southern between thirty-eight and forty-five. At the same time it was provided that the colonies were to be one hundred miles apart. Each was to have a tract of fifty miles along the coast on each side of the settlement, and all islands within one hundred miles of the coast; and no other English colony was to be founded on the mainland behind them without express permission. Each was to be governed by a President and Council of thirteen in America, while these were to be under the control of a Council in England. The members of these Councils and the two Presidents were to be appointed by the King. At the same time James drew up certain articles for the government of the colonies. All criminal cases involving life and death were to be tried by a jury; smaller offences by the President. The President and Council of each colony had power to make ordinances; but these must agree with the laws of England, and were not to become law till approved of by the Sovereign or the Council at home. The Sovereign was also to issue such orders as from time to time should seem desirable. There was to be no private industry in the colony for the first five years, but the settlers were to bring all the fruit of their labor into a common store, whence food and other necessaries would be provided in return.

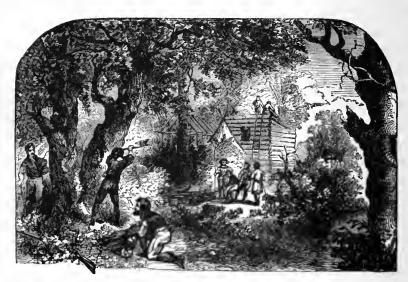
In December, 1606, the Southern colony set out. Three ships sailed with more than one hundred emigrants. By an ill-judged arrangement, the list of the Council was not to be opened till they landed. The



JOHN SMITH

Council was then to elect a Governor. Thus during the voyage there was no one with regular and settled authority. Among the colonists was one John Smith, an English yeoman by birth, who had spent his life as a soldier of fortune. Europe in that age swarmed with adventurers, but few of them had gone through so many strange chances as this man. He had served in the Low Countries; he had been captured by Barbary pirates; he had fought against the Turks in Hungary; he was left for dead on the battlefield; he then escaped from a Turkish prison

into Russia, and at length returned to England. Such a man was likely enough to be of an unquiet temper, and before the fleet had been out six weeks he was confined on suspicion of mutiny. On the 26th of April the colonists landed in Chesapeake Bay and founded a settlement, which they



BUILDING JAMESTOWN.

called Jamestown. The Council then elected Wingfield to be President. He was a man of good birth and some military experience, but proud and self-willed, and indifferent to the friendship and esteem of those under him. Everything now went wrong. The settlers themselves were idle and thriftless, and would not work as long as the supplies which they brought out

lasted. Moreover, they found some earth which they fancied contained gold. and all their time was spent in working at this. The natives were friendly, but Newport, the captain of the ship, by his foolish liberality to the Indian king, Powhatan, made him hold the English goods cheap, and so prevented the settlers from buying corn as easily as they might have done. But for Smith's energy the colony could hardly have existed. He cruised about the coast and explored the country, either conciliating or overawing the natives. and getting abundant supplies of corn from them. As might have been expected, Smith and Wingfield soon quarreled. We have only the accounts of this affair written by each of them, so it is hard to tell the rights of the case. Wingfield, however, himself admitted the great services done by Smith to the colony, and we find Smith long afterwards enjoying the favor and confidence of men connected with Virginia. The quarrel ended by Wingfield being deposed. Smith did not at once become President, but he was practically the head of the colony. For a short time things went on better. The settlers built twenty houses, sowed some ground, set up a regular factory for trade with the Indians, and made some tar and other merchandise. But soon they fell back into their old state. So badly off were they for food, that they were forced to break up into three bodies and settle in different parts. Some even ran off to the Indians and lived among them.

In spite of the evil tidings which came from the colony, and the disappointment of all their hopes of gain, the company in England were not discouraged. Hitherto they had only been a private association for trade, while all the government of the colony was in the hands of the King and the two Councils appointed by him. But in 1609 the company obtained a charter from the King, forming them into a corporation, with a Treasurer and a Council to manage their affairs and those of the colony in Virginia. They were to make laws for the colony and to appoint officers. The company now included many of the greatest men of the age—amongst others, the philosopher Lord Bacon—and most of the great London trading companies

held shares in it.

The new company at once sent out an expedition on a larger scale than the last. Nine ships sailed with five hundred settlers, under the command of Sir Thomas Gates, an experienced soldier, who had distinguished himself in the Low Countries, and Sir George Somers, one of the bravest of the American adventurers in the days of Elizabeth. Lord Delaware was appointed Governor of the colony, and was to follow soon after. Unluckily, before the fleet reached Virginia, the ship in which Gates and Somers sailed got separated from the rest and was east by a storm on the Bermuda Islands. Thus the new colonists arrived without any proper head. The state of the colony now was worse than ever. The new settlers were for the most part the very scum of the earth: men sent out to the New World because they

were unfit to live in the Old. They were idle and mutmous, and utterly despised Smith's authority. West, Lord Delaware's brother, whose position might have given him some authority over them, fell sick, and to crown their misfortunes, Smith met with an accident which obliged him to return to England. The Indians did not actually attack them, but they were known to be plotting against the colony. While things were in this state, Gates and Somers arrived in a pinnace which they had built in the Bermudas with their own hands. The state of the colony seemed so desperate that they determined to break it up and return, with all the settlers, to England. It seemed as if this attempt would end, like Raleigh's, in utter failure. But just as they were all embarked, Lord Delaware arrived with three ships well supplied. He at once resettled the colony, and forced the colonists to till the ground and fortify the settlement against the Indians. From this time the history of Virginia as a settled country may be considered to begin.

Lord Delaware did not stay long in the colony, but left it under the government of Sir Thomas Dale, who, like Gates, had served as a soldier in the Netherlands. He was an able but a stern ruler. He enforced a code of laws copied in many points from the military laws of the Low Countries, so severe that it is wonderful how any community ever endured them. A few of the harshest will serve as specimens. A man was to be put to death for killing any cattle, even his own, without leave of the governor; so was any one who exported goods without leave. A baker who gave short weight was to lose his ears, and on the third offence to be put to death. A laundress who stole linen was to be flogged. Attendance at public worship was enforced by severe penalties. We must not forget, however, that most of the colonists were no better than criminals; indeed, the colony had got so evil a name in England by its disorders and misadventures that few respectable men would go out.

The settlers were of various classes: all who subscribed twelve pounds ten shillings to the company, or sent out a laborer at their own expense, got shares of land—at first a hundred acres; afterwards, as the colony improved, fifty acres each. These farmed their land either by their own labor or by hired servants, and formed the class afterwards called planters. But the greatest part of the land was in the hands, not of private persons, but of the company itself. This was cultivated by public servants who had been sent out at the company's expense, and who were in great part maintained out of a public store, but were also allowed each a patch of ground of his own, upon which to support himself. Some of these public servants were employed in handicrafts and in producing commodities to send home. Moreover, men of special skill, public officers, clergymen, physicians, and the like, were maintained at the company's cost in return for their services.

Under the government of Dale the condition of the colony improved. One important tribe of Indians, the Chickahominies, made a league with the settlers, and in return for some small presents of hatchets and red cloth, acknowledged themselves English subjects, and undertook to pay a yearly

tribute of corn. The chief body of the Indians, under a great and powerful chief, Powhatan, were also closely allied with the English. In 1612, one Captain Argall, an unscrupulous man with influence in the company, by a knavish scheme with Japazaus, an Indian chief, kidnapped Pocahontas, the favorite daughter of Powhatan. During her captivity among the English she became converted to Christianity and married John Rolfe, a leading man among the settlers. Thus from the affair which seemed at one time likely to embroil the colony with the Indians came a friendship which lasted as long as Powhatan lived.

The next year Dale departed. The settlers showed that they needed his



POCAHONTAS.

strong hand over them by falling at once into idleness and improvidence. The new governor, Yeardley, was an upright man, just and humane in his dealings both with the settlers and the natives, but wanting in energy. One great source of mischief which Dale had hardly been able to keep in check was the excessive planting of tobacco. This crop was so profitable that the colonists gave all their time and ground to it, and neglected the needful cultivation of corn. Meanwhile the affairs of the company at home were mismanaged. The treasurer, Sir Thomas Smith, was either negligent or dishonest. Emigrants were sent out utterly unprovided with necessaries, and the supplies forwarded to the colonists were almost worthless. Yeardley's successor, Argall, matters were yet worse. He plundered both the company and the colonists in every way that he could. He took the stores, the servants, and the ships of the company for his own private profit and use. Under his rule the state of the colony became utterly wretched. Though more than a thousand persons had been sent thither, less than six hundred were left. At one place, Henrico, where there had been forty settlers, there was left but one house, and at Jamestown there were but ten or twelve. The condition of the private planters seems to have been better, and it was most likely this which encouraged the company to persevere and

to make one more attempt to bring the colony to a prosperous condition. In 1618, a change was made in the company; Sir Thomas Smith was deposed from the treasurership, and in his place Sir Edwin Sandys appointed. He was an able and upright man, and a leading member of the party that was beginning to resist the arbitrary policy of the king in political and religious matters. Side by side with this a change of even greater and more lasting importance was made in the colony itself. Argall was deposed and Yeardley sent out in his place. His first act, no doubt by the wish of the company, was to form an independent legislature in Virginia. He called an Assembly almost exactly modeled after the English parliament. It consisted of the Council and a body of representatives, two from each of the eleven plantations into which the colony was divided. These representatives were elected by the freeholders. The Assembly so formed imposed taxes, considered petitions, and passed several laws for the management of the colony. From this time the Assembly met, if not every year, at least at frequent intervals, and the Virginians, though nominally dependent on the king and the company, had in most things an independent government of their own.

Under the new system the colony grew and flourished; vines were planted, and manufactories of iron and glass were set on foot. Guest-houses were built, in spots carefully chosen for healthfulness, for the emigrants when first they landed. The company exerted itself to supply the colony with clergymen and schoolmasters; business so increased that it was necessary to have law courts in the different plantations. But the growing prosperity of the colony was soon cruelly checked. From various causes the settlers lived for the most part, not in villages, but in single houses, each with its own farm about it. This was due partly to the system which gave every shareholder a hundred acres of ground for each share, so that many of the planters owned large estates, and partly too to the fact that the country was full of navigable rivers, so that traveling was very easy, and the inconvenience of separation little felt. The colony was thus more exposed to the Indians; but that danger was little feared, since the relations between them and the settlers seemed thoroughly friendly. The Indians came and went among the English, and were allowed to go in and out of their houses as they pleased. Many benevolent schemes had been proposed for converting and training up the Indian children. Unluckily for the English, Powhatan, who had ever been their fast friend, died in 1618. His successor, Opechancanough, was for some time suspected of enmity to the settlers. Yet they do not seem to have been in the least on their guard against an attack. In 1622 an Indian chief murdered an English planter, in revenge for which he was killed by two of the planter's servants. This supplied Opechancanough with a pretext for stirring up his people against the settlers. Till the very moment

that they were ready for the attack the Indians kept up every appearance of friendship, and then suddenly fell upon the settlers and murdered every one they could. Had it not been that one converted Indian gave warning to the English, few would have escaped. As it was, about three hundred and fifty perished. A few years before this would have been fatal, but the colony now numbered between two and three thousand. Public works were



INDIAN ATTACK UPON SETTLERS.

hindered, and the settlers were forced to abandon some of their outlying plantations and draw closer together, but the evil effects soon passed off.

An event even more important than the massaere was at hand. The king, though he granted such ample powers to the company, seems always to have looked on it with some jealousy. This was due, in a great measure, to the intrigues of Gondomar, the Spanish ambassador. For the Spaniards naturally dreaded the growth of English colonies in the New World, lest, they should become as dangerous to the Spanish colonies as England had been to Spain in the Old World. Hence there was perpetual intriguing against the company, and Gondomar, who, by bribing right and left, had gained great influence in England, did all he could against it. As the leading men in the company were of that party who chiefly opposed the king, James was easily persuaded that the company was a training-school for a

seditious parliament. Moreover, Sir Thomas Smith, who had been displaced from the office of treasurer, headed a disaffected party within the company, so that it was divided against itself, and got an ill name for squabbling and misconduct. Besides, the news of the massacre did much to make men think lightly of the colony and distrust its management. In the colony too there were disaffected and discontented people, who spoke evil of the com-But when the king sent out commissioners to inquire into the charges brought against the company, all the serious accusations fell to the ground. Nevertheless, the overthrow of the company was determined on, and in 1623 they were summoned by an order of the Privy Council to surrender their charter, in order that the management of the colony might be handed over to a Council appointed by the king. The company at once refused to yield. Accordingly a writ was issued against the company, called a writ of Quo warranto, by which any corporation can be compelled to show good cause for its existence. At the same time they were deprived of the power of defending themselves by the seizure of all their papers. The details of the trial are not known, but the judges of that time were so subservient to the Court that any matter in which the king was known to take an interest was likely to be decided as he wished. Chief Justice Ley, who had to decide the case, gave it against the company. Virginia Company came to an end after a career of sixteen years.

Few corporations have in so short a time done so much good; for from the time that they were set free from the evil government of Sir Thomas Smith, they seem steadily to have sought the good of the colony rather than their own gain. Yet in all probability Virginia gained by their dissolution, for under the king the colony was left to itself, and learnt independence

and self-reliance, as it hardly could have done under the company.

The effect of the dissolution was to leave the colony entirely dependent on the king. In May, 1625, he issued a proclamation settling the condition of Virginia. It was to be governed by two Councils, one in England and the other in Virginia, both to be appointed by the king, and by a governor also appointed by the king. The colonists had no charter, and no security of any kind against arbitrary government. Practically, however, things went on as before. The Assembly met every year, and enacted measures, which were then sent to England, and, if approved of by the king, became laws. The governor and all the chief officials received fixed salaries, so that they were in no way dependent on the Assembly. In general matters the colony seems to have prospered under the new system. By 1629 the number of settlers had increased, in spite of the massacre, to more than four thousand. Timber and iron were exported, and there seemed a likelihood of vines being successfully cultivated. The damage done by the massacre was soon repaired, and friendship with the Indians restored. In 1635, a dispute arose

with the neighboring colony, Maryland, recently settled by Lord Baltimore. Harvey, the governor of Virginia, took part with Lord Baltimore against the Virginians. Enraged at this, the people rose against Harvey, arrested him, and sent him to England. He, however, defended himself successfully from the charges brought against him, and was restored. In 1639 proposals were set on foot in England for restoring the company, but these came to nothing, chiefly through the opposition offered by the colonists. They no doubt found that they enjoyed greater independence under the king, and feared that the restoration of the company would revive old claims to land, and thus cause confusion.

When the civil war broke out in England, it seemed at first as if Virginia would be a stronghold of the Royalists. Berkeley, the successor of Harvey, was a staunch partisan of the king, and so were many of the chief inhabitants. During the supremacy of the Commonwealth the colonies were placed under the government of a special Commission, with the Earl of Warwick at its head. In October, 1649, nine months after the death of Charles I., the Virginia Assembly passed an Act making it high treason to speak disrespectfully of the late king, to defend his execution, or to question Charles II.'s right to the crown. Nevertheless, as soon as a Parliamentary fleet reached the colony, the Virginians at once surrendered. The Parliamentary Commission granted moderate terms: the Governor and Council were allowed a year in which to dispose of their estates and leave the colony, and no one was to be punished for any act or word on behalf of the king. The supremacy of Parliament does not seem in any way to have altered the condition of the colony at the time. It had, however, one very important and lasting effect. Hitherto it had been an acknowledged principle of law that Parliament had no control over the colonies. In 1624 the House of Commons had attempted to interfere on behalf of the Virginia Company, but were forbidden by the king to proceed further in the matter. They murmured, but gave way. In 1628 they sent a petition to the king on behalf of the Bermudas. But in this they fully acknowledged that the entire government of the colonies ought to be in the hands of the king. But after the death of the king, Parliament had in a great measure assumed his rights and power, and so the government of the colonies naturally passed over to them. Thus it became an established principle that Acts of Parliament were binding on the colonies in the same way as on the mother country, and after the Restoration this principle still remained in force. The chief enactment made by Parliament during the Commonwealth with reference to the colonies was that no goods should be carried to and from the colonies except in English or colonial ships. After the Restoration this was re-enacted, under the name of the Navigation Law. Its object was to confine the colonial trade to England and to encourage English shipping. Another Act was passed, three years later, prohibiting the importation of foreign goods to the colonies, unless they had been first landed in England. To make up for these restrictions, the planting of tobacco in England was forbidden, and thus the colonists enjoyed a monopoly of the tobacco trade. The Navigation Law was not strictly enforced, and therefore did not press hardly on the colonies. Nevertheless, it established the principle that Acts of Parliament were binding on the colonies, although their inhabitants had no voice in electing Parliament, and very little power of making their wants known to it.

The Restoration caused as little stir in Virginia as the overthrow of the monarchy had done. No attempt was made to resist it, and Berkeley was



A VIRGINIA FOREST.

quietly reinstalled as governor. The colony seems about this time to have reached its most prosperous state. The number of inhabitants had increased to forty thousand; of these, two thousand were negro slaves. Besides these there were many English convicts, who were condemned to serve as slaves for a certain time. Most of these were prisoners who had been sentenced to death, but whose punishment had been changed by special favor to transportation. In spite of the existence of this class, the colony seems to have been very free from crime. Houses were left open at night, and clothes allowed to hang on hedges in safety. This was probably due to the comfort and plenty that prevailed. A single man could, by his own labor, raise two hundred and fifty bushels of Indian corn in a year. Cattle required no

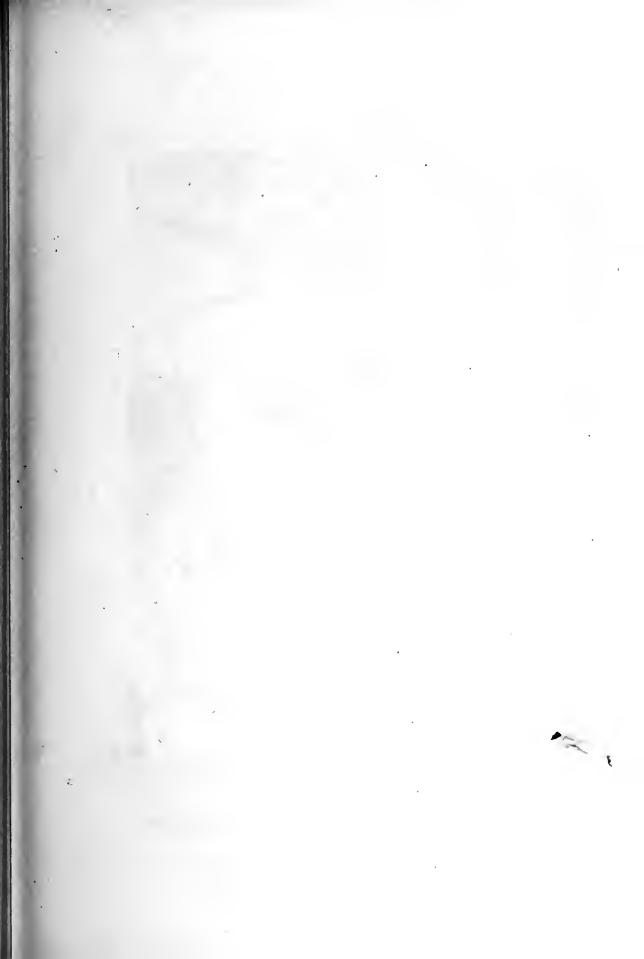
attention, but were turned out into the woods and throve there. The forests swarmed with game, and the rivers with fish. Ever since 1643 the relations with the Indians had been friendly; in that year war had broken out. The Indians were easily subdued; Opechancanough was captured and put to death, and a firm peace made with his successor. For nearly thirty years from that time the peace remained unbroken. During this period, various laws were passed for the protection of the Indians. Efforts were made to convert and to teach their children, and the English tried to civilize them by offering them cows as a reward for killing wolves. The colonists were forbidden by law to enslave the Indians or to buy land from them. In 1660, two settlers, men of high position, were fined fifteen thousand pounds of tobacco each, and were disqualified from holding any office in the colony, because they had unlawfully kept an Indian as a prisoner. At the same time another settler was disqualified in the same way, for cheating the Indians of some land.

The worst evils from which the colony suffered were the want of towns and of education. The first of these was due to various causes: many of the settlers had been landed gentry, and had a taste for large estates and for a country life. In the time of the company, there was no difficulty about acquiring large estates, since every share of twelve pounds ten shillings entitled the holder to fifty acres. After the dissolution of the company, the government seems to have been careless in its grants of land, and many men acquired estates far larger than they could properly manage. The number of rivers, and the ease with which the settlers could transport themselves and their goods from one place to another, favored this mode of life. cultivation of tobacco and the use of slave labor also helped to bring this Slaves can seldom learn to cultivate more than one kind of crop; and as tobacco exhausts the soil, it was necessary to be always taking fresh land into cultivation, and leaving that which had been already tilled to re-Thus each planter needed far more land than he would have done under a more thrifty system. Various attempts were made to establish towns, but they came to nothing; chiefly because every one wanted to have the town within easy reach of his own plantation. Thus the Assembly, with whom the arrangement of these matters lay, could never fix on a site. The result of this want of towns was that there were neither schools nor printing-presses, and that the people grew up for the most part utterly untaught. Moreover, the clergy, from whom some kind of training might have been expected, were for the most part ignorant men, and of low station.

About 1670 political discontent began to show itself. There were various causes for this: In 1655 a law had been passed restricting the right of voting at elections to landowners and householders, whereas before all

freemen had voted. This law was repealed in the next year, on the ground that it was unfair that persons should pay taxes and yet have no votes. In 1670 the same law was again enacted. Besides this, the governor had been gradually acquiring an undue share of power. It had been originally intended that the Council who were appointed by the king should be a check upon the governor. But the king depended mainly for his information as to the state of the colony on the governor. The result of this was that the appointment of the Council came to be made in reality by the governor; and instead of being a check upon him, they were his supporters. The clerk of the Assembly also found it to his interest to stand well with the governor, and for this object kept him informed as to all the doings of the Assembly; so that it was impossible for them to contrive any plan of action against the governor without his hearing of it. As all the important public officers were appointed by the governor, the whole control of affairs had passed into his hands; and as Berkeley was a man of harsh and arbitrary temper, this caused much discontent. Two things besides increased this feeling. In 1669 Charles II. granted the whole domain of Virginia to Lord Culpepper and Lord Arlington for thirty-one years. The chief fear was lest the new proprietors should claim land as unappropriated which had already been granted to private persons. As the grant gave them the right of appointing public surveyors, they were certain of a favorable decision in any question of disputed boundaries. The Assembly took fright at this, and sent over three agents to Eugland to remonstrate against the grant. This agency was a cause of public expense, and so did something to increase the existing discontent. Moreover, Berkeley had recently enforced the laws against Nonconformists with severity, and many had been obliged to leave the colony, and probably many were left behind secretly disaffected. Thus everything was ready for a commotion, and it only needed some small event to set one on foot.

In 1675 a quarrel broke out between the settlers and two tribes of Indians, the Susquehannalis and the Doegs. These Indians stole some pigs to revenge themselves on one Matthews, a planter, who, as they said, had cheated them. The thieves were pursued, and some of them killed. The Indians then killed Matthews, his son, and two of his servants. Upon this, some planters, without authority from the governor, got together a force, and besieged one of the Indian forts. The Indians then sent six of their chiefs to make proposals for peace, but the settlers in their anger fell upon them and slew them. This enraged the Indians yet more, and an irregular warfare was carried on, in which three hundred of the English perished. The settlers then besought Berkeley to send out a force, but he refused. Thereupon one Baeon, a resolute and able man whom misfortune had made reckless, went against the Indians without any commission from Berkeley.



Selmer Heas Pohlishe



Five hundred men a sure pened him. Berkeley thereupon proclaisand them rebels, and sent traits a cornect them. This only made Bacon's tallowers more obstinate, at the be election that automit he was chosen as a member of the Assemble When he cause to Jamestown to take his sear, Berkeley at first opposed the a pance and triod to arrest him. Nevertheless, in a short time they was going in for an ited. Possibly this was no was afterwards thought a reason to kele is par to get Bacon in his power. Various laws wer then passed a council for almses which had excited discontant. The right of voring was a story to all freemen, the fees of public offices were reduced, and have any progred a commission against the Indians. But when the time the early lev refused to fulfil this promise. Thereupon Basson left James a said on lovelays returned with five hundred followers, Berkeley 1 . green communistion, and Bacon marched against the In hans. News .... we reached him that Berkelev had raised a force and was conting ! a said in a Rama there. were sent against them from England, to the grievances could be laid before the kings haber and a grant of them. who fled. Bacon then bount down James, the shelter there, and pursued Berkeley. But here are a server as a server as rebel force fell to preces, and was easily received by the same victory mercilessly, putting robels to death about the tiral at a cating their estates before they were conden . . . He was ante go, these misdeeds by the arrival of three communications and out by the grant of inquire into the completed the rebellion. He know went to have died soon after, to was thought, of vexation is a relation was a source of great as to the colony. The same and half as England had just abstimed from the branch as a reserve to the amongst other pri lieger or pid have and the service and to the Assembly; but in come appender of the second sire second and none of the grievances against which is a second set of ressed. In one respect Barren and ris follows. The second of the second in their undistinguishing their against see. A latte of conductibe, and had drives their assen. A to the full see Eng lish, to flee into the wester the six is a secondary after Berkeley's departure two poses was a seal the large their relations with the settlers were their malice.

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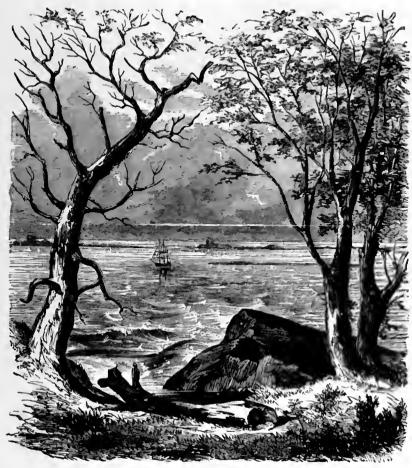
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Five hundred men at once joined him. Berkeley thereupon proclaimed them rebels, and sent troops to arrest them. This only made Bacon's followers more obstinate, and at the election that autumn he was chosen as a member of the Assembly. When he came to Jamestown to take his seat, Berkelev at first opposed his entrance and tried to arrest him. Nevertheless, in a short time they were seemingly reconciled. Possibly this was, as was afterwards thought, a trick on Berkeley's part to get Bacon in his power. Various laws were then passed to remedy the abuses which had excited discontent. The right of voting was restored to all freemen, the fees of public offices were reduced, and Bacon was promised a commission against the Indians. But when the time came Berkeley refused to fulfil this promise. Thereupon Bacon left Jamestown, and in a few days returned with five hundred followers. Berkeley now granted the commission, and Bacon marched against the Indians. News, however, soon reached him that Berkeley had raised a force and was coming to attack him. Bacon thereupon made his followers swear to be faithful to him, and, even if troops were sent against them from England, to resist till such time as their grievances could be laid before the king; he then marched against Berkeley, who fled. Bacon then burnt down Jamestown, lest his enemy should take shelter there, and pursued Berkeley. But before any engagement could take place Bacon fell sick and died. There was no one to take his place; the rebel force fell to pieces, and was easily overcome. Berkeley used his victory mercilessly, putting rebels to death without due trial, and confiscating their estates before they were condemned. He was only stopped in these misdeeds by the arrival of three commissioners sent out by the king to inquire into the causes of the rebellion. Berkeley went to England, and died soon after, as was thought, of vexation. The rebellion was in one way a source of great loss to the colony. The agents who had been sent to England had just obtained from the king the promise of a charter, which amongst other privileges would have confined the right of levying taxes to the Assembly; but in consequence of the rebellion this was withdrawn, and none of the grievances against which the agents protested were redressed. In one respect Bacon and his followers had been clearly blameworthy: in their undistinguishing rage against the Indians, they had attacked a friendly tribe, and had driven their queen, who had been a faithful ally to the Euglish, to flee into the woods at the risk of her life. Nevertheless, soon after Berkeley's departure a firm peace was made with all the Indians, and their relations with the settlers were thenceforth friendly.

Two governors who came soon after, Lord Culpepper and Lord Effingham, governed the colony worse than any that had gone before them. Lord Culpepper came out in 1680; he persuaded the Assembly to raise his salary from one thousand to two thousand pounds. It had been a custom

for the captains of ships to make certain presents to the governor: Culpenper changed these into fixed dues. In 1683 he left the colony. His successor, Lord Effingham, created new and unnecessary offices, and devised pretexts for exacting additional fees. Both of these governors claimed and exercised the right of repealing laws passed in the Assembly, by their own proclamation. The English Revolution of 1688, though it introduced no change into the constitution of Virginia, seems to have stopped, or at least greatly lessened, these evils. One new abuse, however, came in. Hitherto. the governor had always lived in Virginia; now it became the custom for him to be represented by a deputy in the colony. From 1704 to 1740 the Earl of Orkney was nominally governor, but during that long time he was represented by a deputy, who received eight hundred pounds a year out of the governor's salary. Thus the colony was taxed twelve hundred pounds a year for the maintenance of the governor, whom they never saw. English government excused this on the ground that it would be of great service to the colony to have some man of high position in England to look after their interest: but as Lord Orkney was nearly the whole of the time away on foreign service, it can hardly be thought that he was of much use to the colony. The most important change introduced by the Revolution was the establishment of a college, called the College of William and Mary. Large subscriptions for this purpose were given by the colonists, as well as by Virginia merchants and other persons in England. Professorships were established, and a handsome building erected, after plans by Sir Christopher Wren.





PLYMOUTH ROCK.

## CHAPTER IV.

PLYMOUTH.

HE Virginia Company originally consisted, as we have seen, of two branches, one the South Virginia Company at London, the other the North Virginia Company at Plymouth. In 1607 the latter sent out forty-five settlers, who established themselves at the mouth of the river Kennebec. This attempt came to nothing. The winter was unusually cold; Popham, their leader, died, and the colony broke up. This failure kept Englishmen from making any attempt at settlement in that quarter for some years. Fishing voyages were made; and

Smith, after his return from Virginia, explored the coast, gave it the name

of New England, and did his best to persuade rich men in England to plant a colony there. Besides, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who had taken a leading part in fitting out the expedition of 1606, had several times sent out ships to explore the coast. But for fourteen years after Popham's failure no settlement was made. One reason possibly was, that the Virginia Company took off all who had money and energy-to spend on such enterprises. The colonization of Virginia was, as we have already seen, brought about by the pressure of poverty and the lack of food and employment in England. The colonization of New England was due to a totally different cause, namely, the ill-treatment which a particular sect received from the English government. During the reign of Elizabeth the English Protestants were divided into two parties. There were those who thought that the Reformation had gone far enough, or even too far, and who wished to keep as much as possible, and in some cases even to restore, something of the ritual and teaching of the Roman Catholic Church. There were others who wanted to go much further than the English Church had yet gone, and to abolish many things which reminded them of the old connection with Rome. party was itself again divided into various bodies. There were those who wished to maintain the system of Church-government by bishops, and only to change some of the forms of worship. Others wanted to introduce the Presbyterian system, that of government by elders, as established in Switzerland and France by Calvin and his followers, and in Scotland by John Knox. A third party, small and insignificant during the reign of Elizabeth, wished to introduce the Independent system which existed in some parts of Germany. Under this system each congregation was a separate body, having full control over its own religious affairs. Neither of these last named parties, the Presbyterian or the Independent, obtained much importance under Elizabeth. But as James I. and Charles I., and the leading men among the bishops in their reigns, showed no readiness to yield anything to the reforming party in the Church, many of those who had hitherto been in favor of keeping the existing Church-government, gradually went over to the Presbyterians or Independents. During the reign of Elizabeth several severe measures were passed against the Independents, prohibiting them from holding religious meetings. Under James, yet harsher measures were enacted. The result was to drive many of them to Holland, where full toleration was granted to all sects. Among these refugees was an Independent congregation from Scrooby, a village in Nottinghamshire. They fled in a body in 1608, under the guidance of their minister, Robinson, one of the best and wisest of the English Independents, and established themselves at Leyden. There they sojourned for more than ten years, and were joined by many of their friends from England, so that they grew to be a great congregation. But though they prospered, they

were not altogether satisfied with their abode in Holland. Their children were exposed to the temptations of a great city, and doubtless many longed for the quiet country life in which they had been bred. At length they bethought them of forming a settlement in America, to be a refuge from the temptations of the world, and perhaps the means of conveying Christianity to the heathen. They decided to settle, if they were allowed, as a separate community, on the lands of the Virginia Company. With this view they sent over to England two deputies to get a grant of land from the company and a charter from the king. The land was granted, but the charter was refused. The king, however, gave a general promise that, if they behaved peaceably, they should not be molested. At first they had some doubt

about settling without a charter, but one of their leaders remarked, that "if there should be a purpose or desire to wrong them, though they had a seal as broad as the house floor, it would not serve the turn, for there would be means enough found to recall it or reverse it." On the 6th of September, 1620, a hundred and twenty of them, having crossed over from Leyden, set sail from Southampton in two vessels, the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*. At first everything seemed against them; before they had



THE MAYFLOWER.

gone far, the *Speedwell* sprang a leak, and was obliged to return for repairs. On the next attempt, when they were three hundred miles from land, the *Speedwell* was found to be overmasted, and unfit for the voyage. They decided to divide into two companies, one of which should return, and the other proceed in the *Mayflower*.

On the 9th of November they sighted land. This proved to be Cape Cod, a promontory some one hundred and thirty miles north of the spot where they wished to settle; they then directed the master of the ship to sail south. This, however, he professed himself unable to do, and landed them inside the bay formed by Cape Cod and the mainland. They believed that he had been bribed by the Dutch, who traded with the Indians about the mouth of the river Hudson, and who did not wish to have any rivals there. As it turned out, the coast within the bay was a fitter spot for a weak colony. The Indians had a few years before captured the crew of a French vessel, and cruelly put them to death. One of the French had warned them that their crime would not go unpunished. Shortly after, a great plague fell upon them and swept off whole villages. This had a twofold effect: it weakened the Indians, and left much of their country desolate and empty for the new comers, and it made the savages believe that the God of the white men would punish any wrong done to them. But for this protection, a weak colony could hardly have escaped destruction by the Indians. In

other respects too, the spot was well-suited for a settlement; the soil was fairly fertile, there was good harborage for ships, and the climate, though severe in winter, was healthy. In fact it was, like England, a country less attractive and less rich in its resources than southern lands, but more fitted to call out energy and activity, and so to breed hardy and industrious citizens.

The first act of the settlers on landing was to constitute themselves a body politic, with power to make laws and ordinances for the management of their joint affairs. They then looked out for a suitable spot for a permanent settlement. They decided on a place with a harbor, cornfields, and running water, on the west side of the bay. There, on the 21st of December, they landed, calling the place "Plymouth," after the last English town they had left. As they had settled beyond the limits of the Virginia Company, their patent was useless; the land which they occupied was, however, in the possession of another company. Gorges and other leading men had, in 1620. obtained a charter from the king for the land which was to have been occupied by the North Virginia Company. This was, in fact, a revival of that company, and as the new company, like the old one, numbered among its members many west-countrymen, it was called the Plymouth Company. But it must be remembered that this Plymouth Company and Plymouth the Puritan Colony were two distinct bodies, and that neither in any way took its name from the other. In 1621 the colony obtained a patent from the company. This was not granted directly to the settlers themselves, but to a body of London merchants. These men formed a sort of smaller corporation under the Plymouth Company. They fitted out the colonists, and took the expense of sending them out. The shares were allotted to the colonists themselves, and to those who contributed money—one share to each emigrant, and one for every ten pounds invested. The colonists were to be provided with food and all other necessaries from the common stock. profits were to accumulate, and, at the end of seven years, to be divided among all the shareholders. These merchants seem to have gone into the matter merely as a question of profit, and to have had no special sympathy with the Puritans, and accordingly they dealt somewhat harshly with the colonists.

For the first few years the climate bore hard on the settlers, and the history of the colony is little more than one long story of suffering and endurance. The first winter the cold was so severe that out of a hundred settlers about half died, and of the rest all but six or seven were at one time ill. Slighter hardships had broken up the Virginia settlements under Lane and Somers. But the men of Plymouth were more enduring, and held on; the friendship of the Indians was of great service to them. The first meeting, a few days after the settlers landed, was hostile, and the English had to

use their guns in self-defence But soon after they met with a savage who could speak English, and they soon made friends with Massasoit, the chief sachem in those parts. With him they made a firm league; two years later his life was saved by the medical skill of the English, and he was ever after their fast friend. The only show of enmity on the part of the Indians was made by a chief named Canonicus. He sent the English the skin of a snake full of arrows, as a sort of challenge. Bradford, the governor of Plymouth, stuffed the skin with powder and ball, and sent it back. The Indians seem to have taken the warning, and made no attack. After this, the settlers of Plymouth lived for many years at peace with their savage neighbors. One exception there was indeed, but that was due entirely to the misconduct of other English settlers. In 1622 one Weston obtained a patent from the Plymouth Company, and settled sixty men in Massachusetts some thirty or forty miles north of Plymouth. They proved idle and disorderly, and instead of working, plundered the Indians, and so endangered the peace between them and the Plymouth settlers. Some triffing hostilities broke out and a few Indians were killed, but peace was soon restored. Weston's colony, in less than two years from its foundation, broke up, greatly oppressed by famine, but partly from dread of the Indians. Somewhat later, one Captain Wollaston set up a plantation near the site of Weston's. too failed, and Wollaston, with most of his men, departed to Virginia. The rest stayed under the leadership of one Morton, a dissolute and riotous man. He sold arms and ammunition to the Indians, and by this and other misdeeds became so dangerous to the men of Plymouth that they at length arrested him and sent him home. At a later day, as we shall see, he returned to America, repeated his offences, and was again banished.

Partly, perhaps, through these hindrances, the colony for a while did not prosper. For the first five years the settlers had no cattle, and when their corn was spent, they had often to live wholly on shell-fish. At the end of four years the settlement numbered only a hundred and eighty persons, dwelling in thirty-two houses, and the shareholders at home grumbled at the small profits. In 1627 a change was made, greatly for the good of the colony; the settlers themselves bought up the whole stock of the company, paying for it by instalments; they had to raise the money at high interest. Nevertheless, the knowledge that they were working for their own profit so quickened their industry, that in six years from that time they had paid off all their debts and had become the independent owners of their own land, houses, and live stock. One important result of this was the rapid increase of numbers. Hitherto the new comers were only such men as the shareholders thought likely to make good colonists and were willing to send out. Now it was free to the settlers to choose their own associates, and accordingly many of the English Puritans joined them. By 1643 the colony numbered three thousand inhabitants, divided among eight towns. Moreover, the members of the Plymouth Company sent out fishing and exploring expeditions, and formed trading stations along the coast, and these opened

fresh markets for the produce of Plymouth.

The process by which Plymouth grew was quite different from that which we have seen in Virginia. The settlers did not spread over a wide surface of country, living in solitary plantations, but formed townships. As their numbers increased and outgrew the original settlements, they moved off in bodies, each occupying an allotted portion of ground, of which a part was held in common. Thus there were no great estates, as in Virginia, and all the towns, or, as we should rather call them, villages, were within easy reach of one another. For some while they did not extend inland, but only along the coast, so that of the eight townships first formed seven were by the sea. There were various causes for this difference between Virginia



A PURITAN.

and Plymouth. One was, that the Puritans made it a great point to worship frequently together, and so could not bear to be widely scattered. Another was, that the Plymouth settlers were not, like many of the Virginians, taken from the landed gentry, and so they had no special taste for large landed estates, even if they could have got them. Moreover, at that time, among the English yeomen and cottagers much of the land was still held and farmed in common by villages, so that the system of townships fell in with the home usages of the colonists. Moreover, there was no such means of passing from one part of the country to another and of carrying goods as was afforded by the rivers in Virginia, and the

fear of the Indians served to keep the settlers together. It is very important to bear all this in mind, since it was the leading point of difference, not only between Virginia and Plymouth, but between the southern and northern colonies. The former for the most part consisted of scattered plan-

tations, the latter of closely connected townships.

The government of Plymouth consisted of a Governor, a body of Assistants, and an Assembly. The Governor and Assistants were elected by the whole body of freemen. The Assembly was at first what is called primary, that is to say, it consisted of the whole body of freemen meeting themselves, not sending their representatives. The first freemen were the original settlers, afterwards those who in each town were admitted by the body of freemen already existing. As may be easily supposed, when the number of townships increased, it was found inconvenient for the whole body of freemen to meet together for public business. Accordingly, in a few years the system of representation, the same by which the English House of Commons is formed, was introduced. Every township sent two repre-

sentatives, and the body so returned was, with the Governor and Assistants. the General Court. The primary Assembly of all the freemen still kept its power of enacting laws, but this gradually fell into disuse, and the whole government passed over to the General Court. Thus we see that in the two earliest American colonies, the government was modeled on that of England. But there was this important difference between the two: in Virginia the system of government was originally copied from the English constitution; while in Plymouth it was at first quite different, and became like it only by gradually fitting itself to the wants of the people. This change is of special importance, since it shows the way in which, in many free communities in different parts of the world, a representative assembly has taken the place of a primary one. But in most cases this change has taken place in such early times, that our knowledge of it is vague and im-The American colonies furnish almost the only instance in which we can trace the whole process. After this change the Governor and Assistants were still elected by the whole body of freemen. The Assistants sat as judges in criminal and civil cases, with a jury of freemen, and generally managed public business. So little ambition was there in the state, and so small was the profit and honor attached to the public offices, that a law was passed imposing a fine on any one who refused the place of Governor or Assistant when elected. For the first sixteen years the colony lived under the laws of England. In 1636 a special committee was appointed to help the Governor and Assistants in drawing up a code of laws. laws were simple in their character, not copied from the laws of England, but suited to the wants of a small community living in a plain manner. Cases too triffing to come before the Assistants were tried by magistrates in the different townships.



## CHAPTER V.

MASSACHUSETTS AND CONNECTICUT.

HEN the North Virginia Company was renewed under the name of the Plymouth Company, many important men belonged to it, and some of the members, such as Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason, took a great interest in its prosperity. Yet it was far inferior in its results to the Virginia Company. No successful settlements were made at the expense of the company, nor does it seem to have done much in the way of trade. The chief thing done was to sell or let large tracts of land to private

persons, many of them members of the company, which they might occupy This hindered rather than furthered colonization. For the leading men of the company knew so little of the country that they often carelessly disposed of the same tract of land twice over, and this gave rise to much confusion in later times. Thus for some years after the settlement of Plymouth very little else was done in that quarter. We have already seen what became of two settlements, those under Weston and Wollaston. Another attempt was made in 1623. In that year, Robert Gorges, a son of Sir Ferdinando, was sent out to plant a colony at Wessagusset, where Weston had already failed. But though he went out with a commission from the company as Governor-General of New England, he did nothing worth speaking of, and only left a few scattered settlers. Some of the members of the company too had regular establishments for fishing and trading in furs, managed by hired servants, and a good many vessels fished along the Massachusetts bay. Besides this, a few stray emigrants seem to have settled themselves alone, but not to have formed any villages. of these traders and fishermen did much harm by selling guns to the natives, and this, together with the Virginia massacre, led the king to publish a proclamation forbidding any one to sell arms or ammunition to the savages in America. Before long the success of the Plymouth colonists led others to follow in their footsteps. About 1627 some of the leaders among the Puritan party, men of much greater wealth and education than the founders of Plymouth, bethought them of forming a second Puritan colony in Already some of these men had a fishing station on the coast about sixty miles from Plymouth, which was to serve as a sort of foundation for their colony. In 1628 they got a tract of land, about sixty miles along the oast, granted them by the Plymouth Company, and sent out a party of sixty men to occupy it. So far the founders of the settlement were only a private trading company; but in the spring of 1629 they took an important step—they increased their number, and obtained a charter from the king making them into a corporation, called the Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England. This company had nothing to do with the Plymouth Company, beyond having bought a tract of land from it. In its character and objects it was not unlike the Virginia Company. Its affairs were managed by a Governor, a Deputy-Governor, and eighteen Assistants. All

these officers were elected by the whole company once a year. The whole body of members had the power of making laws for the settlers in their territory so long as these did not interfere with the laws of England. The company immediately appointed a Council of thirteen to manage their affairs in the colony, and sent out six ships with three hundred men and eighty women. Next year a very important change was made. The charter said nothing as to the place at which the meetings of the company were to be held. Accordingly the members resolved to carry the charter over to America, and to hold their meetings there. In this way they would be less under the eye of the English



PILGRIM COSTUMES,

government, and better able to make such religious and political changes as might please them. If the company had been really like the Virginia Company, a trading corporation, this change would have been inconvenient. But from the outset the formation of a Puritan colony was looked on as their chief object. Rules were made about the joint trade of the company, but these soon passed out of sight. The company seems never to have divided any profits in money, and the only return which the subscribers received for the money they had put in was the land allotted to them in America. The real object of the company was something very different from trade. It was to found a separate state, independent of England, and differing from it in many leading points. This attempt was even more remarkable than the undertakings of the Virginia and Plymouth colonists. The Virginia Company made their settlement with the intention that it should be closely connected with England, and though it became in many ways independent, yet it did so gradually, and rather by chance than of set purpose. Plymouth was indeed quite as independent as Massachusetts. But then, Plymouth was in every way a much less important place. The

men who founded it were poor and unlearned, and could be hardly said to have taken up the enterprise of their own free will, but were rather forced into it by the ill-treatment they met with in England. The founders of Massachusetts were in a very different position. We have seen that among those who wished to carry the Protestant Reformation further than it had yet gone there were different parties. There were those who condemned the Church of England altogether, and wished instead to have Independent, or, as they may be called, Congregational churches. The founders of Plymouth belonged to this party. The party to which the founders of Massachusetts belonged also wished to remove many usages which seemed to them too much like those of the Roman Catholic Church. But they sought to do so, not by leaving the English Church and setting up a new system, but by altering the practices of the Church itself. Most of those Puritans who were in Parliament and took an active part in public affairs were of this latter party. At this particular time those men were just as much opposed to the system of political government in England as to the practices of the Church; for the king was beginning to set Parliament at naught, and to govern by his own will. He levied taxes without the consent of the House of Commons, and imprisoned those who would not pay: in short, he was entering upon that system of government which led to the Great Rebellion. In founding the colony of Massachusetts, the Puritans were securing a refuge where they might be safe from this arbitrary government, and might manage things according to their own political principles. This, coupled with the greater wealth and higher birth of the first colonists, made the settlement of Massachusetts a much more important event than that of Plymouth; for the founders of Massachusetts were for the most part rich men, some country squires and some merchants, and several were kinsfolk to the greatest men of the day. Many of those who furthered it, though not of those who actually went out, were members of Parliament, who afterwards took a leading part in English affairs; and some of the actual settlers seem to have been in nowise inferior to them in wisdom and energy, and doubtless would have made great names for themselves if they had stayed in England. So that, by looking at the colony of Massachusetts, we can see what sort of a commonwealth was constructed by the best men of the Puritan party, and, to some extent, what they would have made the government of England if they could have had their way unchecked. first governor, John Winthrop, was a country gentleman of a good estate in Suffolk, forty-two years of age. Eaton, one of the assistants, had been the English minister at the court of Denmark. To such as these it must have been no small sacrifice to leave England and their houses and estates, and to settle in a wilderness. In this Massachusetts differed from Virginia: for though Lord Delaware and Gates and Dale had gone out to the colony, yet

they only went for a while to set things in order, with no intention of staying; but in Massachusetts men of great ability and distinction went out at the very first as regular settlers. This we may be sure they would never have done without the hope of enjoying such political and religious freedom as was not to be had in England.

In the summer of 1630 Winthrop went out with a thousand emigrants. Like the earlier settlers in Virginia and Plymouth, they suffered grievous hardships. In the winter before nearly eighty of the colonists had died, and of



NEW ENGLAND SCENERY.

course, as their numbers increased, food was scarcer and their plight became worse. Moreover, the cold weather came on before they had time to settle and build houses, and many died. By ill luck it was a time of dearth in England, and very little corn was sent over, and that at great prices. One result of this was that the settlers, in their attempts to find food, spread abroad, and instead of all forming one town, as was originally intended, they formed eight small settlements.

One of the most interesting and remarkable things in the early history of Massachusetts is the series of changes in its system of government. After a few years it had, like Virginia and Plymouth, a government which was a sort of miniature of the English system, and consisted of a Governor, a Council of Assistants, and a body of Representatives, two from each settlement. In the process by which this came about Massachusetts resembled, not Virginia, but Plymouth. The arrangement was not made once for all,

but grew gradually by various changes which were made as they became necessary. Originally all important matters were managed by the whole body of the freemen at their meetings four times in the year. The number of freemen, however, increased so fast that the system became inconvenient, and in October, 1630, the right of making laws and of electing the Governor and Deputy-Governor was given over to the Assistants. Very soon it was found difficult to get together seven Assistants, which was the number required to form a meeting. Accordingly the Assistants enacted that if less than nine of them should be in the colony, the majority should be enough to form a meeting. This change placed the authority in the hands of a very small body.

In May, 1631, the manner of electing Assistants was altered; the Assistants, instead of being elected afresh every year, remained in office until they were specially removed by a vote of the freemen. After these two measures. the management of affairs was likely to fall into the hands of a very small body of men, who could not easily be deprived of their office. In the spring of 1631 the inhabitants of Watertown, one of the eight settlements, refused to pay a tax levied by the Assistants. When the General Court of all the freemen met in May, it was decided that two men should be sent from each settlement to decide the question of taxation. Two points should be noticed: 1. The principle for which the men of Watertown had contended, that they should not be taxed without their own consent, was admitted; 2. The freemen, instead of acting directly in the matter, found it more convenient to send deputies to speak for them. For the present these deputies had no power of law making, but only advised the Assistants about taxation. At the same time the freemen claimed and were allowed the right of electing the Governor and Assistants each year. Two years later a very important change was made. The freemen, finding that to attend the meetings was too great an interruption to their business, reserved to themselves only the power of electing the Governor and Deputy-Governor, and made over all their other powers to their deputies. These Deputies, together with the Governor and Assistants, formed the General Court. In the year 1634 the election of Governor was by ballot, and, for the first time, Winthrop was not elected. Soon after, when seven men were appointed to settle the division of town lands, Winthrop and several of the chief men were left out, and poorer men chosen, from an idea that otherwise the lower class of settlers would not get their fair share. In this same year a proposal was made which, if carried, would have completely changed the character of the colony. Certain Puritans of the upper classes, including Lord Brook and Lord Say and Sele, who were both members of the Plymouth Company and took a great interest in eolonization, proposed to come over. They required, however, that two orders should be established in the colony, gentlemen and

freeholders. The rank of the first was to be hereditary, and the governor was always to be chosen from it. The second order, the freeholders, was to consist of those who had a certain amount of property, while all below that were to be shut out from all political power. Such a system would have robbed many of the freemen of the very liberty in hopes of which they came over. If the proposal had been made earlier, before the freemen had strengthened themselves by naming representatives, it might have been entertained; but as it was, it met with no favor. Two years later an attempt was made to establish a Permanent Council. Its members were to hold office for life, and could only be removed for some serious cause. Some councillors were elected, but nothing further was ever done, and the scheme fell to the ground.

Up to 1644 the Deputies sat together with the Assistants; but in that year they sat apart, like the English House of Commons. The manner in which this came about is a good illustration of the simple life of the colony, and shows how the government had to manage all matters, great and small, and how the two were in a great measure mixed up. A lawsuit about a stolen pig came before the General Court. The parties to the suit were a poor widow and one Captain Keayne, a rich man, who was thought hard to the poor, and so was unpopular. Seven Assistants and eight Deputies were on Keayne's side; two Assistants and fifteen Deputies were against him. The Assistants were looked on as the champions of the rich; the Deputies, to of the poor: and thus a bitter feeling sprang up. A long dispute followed, and in the end the power of the Deputies was increased by their being allowed to sit as a separate body. After that the constitution of Massachusetts underwent no important change for forty years.

. All this while, though Massachusetts was in so many ways independent, and had so little connection with the home government, yet it preferred to be governed by the laws of England; that is to say, the law of England was the only law which held good in Massachusetts, except when anything different was specially enacted by the Court. But in 1636, the people, who, as we have seen, were somewhat jealous of the leading men, demanded a code of laws, feeling that they would be more secure if they were governed by fixed statutes than by enactments made from time to time by the Court. On the other hand, Winthrop and some of the principal men felt that the Government in England might resent the enactment of a regular code of laws, as if the settlers thereby claimed to be independent of the mother country. The people, however, were determined to have a code, and at length got their way. A committee was appointed to draw one up, and, though there was much delay, in 1641 a complete set of laws was enacted under the name of the Body of Liberties. This code was modeled in many of its parts, not on the English law, but on that of Moses. In one respect it followed the principles of the English law in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. who appeared to be living in a state of idleness were compelled to give an account of themselves to the government, and all heads of families were

bound to see that their children were properly employed.

Originally the Massachusetts settlers differed from those of Plymouth in their position towards the Church. They were only reformers, not dissenters; but though they accepted the government of the Church while they were in England, they had no such liking for it that they cared to continue their connection with it when it was even easier and simpler to establish a new system. Immediately upon their first landing in 1628 they adopted a system of Independent churches, like that of Plymouth. In 1631 a law was passed that no man should be a freeman of the colony, that is to say, should have any share in the government or in the election of officers, unless he belonged to a church. The effect of this was to establish a connection between



EARLY MEETING-HOUSE.

the churches and the civil government. Each church had the power of admitting fresh members to itself; that is to say, of making fresh citizens. Such a power was too important to be exercised without any control on the part of the state; moreover, the New England Puritans believed, like most men in that age, that it was their duty to root out every form of belief which they thought false, and that, if needs were, by force. result of this was, that those who held unpopular opinions in Massachusetts were treated in much the same

way as the Puritans themselves were in England. Endicott, a harsh and austere man, who was sent out in charge of the first party in 1628, was empowered to expel any one from the colony whom he thought an unsuitable inhabitant. He accordingly drove out two brothers, John and Samuel Brown, a lawyer and a merchant, who wished to celebrate worship according to the forms of the Church of England. Three years later, one Lynn was whipped and banished for writing home letters attacking the system of church-government.

In 1634 a more serious contest arose. In that year, Roger Williams, an able young Welshman, trained at Oxford, and of great integrity and gentleness, was minister at Salem, a town in Massachusetts. There he taught certain doctrines, both in religion and politics, which were thought dangerous to the state. He was brought before the Court, and after much discussion they decided to send him back to England. Before this sentence could be carried out, he escaped. Soon afterwards he established a small settlement to the south of Massachusetts. In justice, it must be said that the chief men in Massachusetts do not seem to have borne any ill-will against Williams afterwards. Indeed, while he was still on his trial, Winthrop,

hearing that he was in need, sent him money. Two years later worse troubles arose. A certain Mrs. Hutchinson, an active and clever woman. took to giving religious lectures at Boston. She soon became the leader of a sect in many points opposed to the teaching of the regular ministers. In this she was supported by Wheelwright, the minister of Boston, and by nearly the whole of his church. The matter was brought before the General Court, and Greensmith, one of Mrs. Hutchinson's chief supporters, was fined forty pounds. The church of Boston took up his cause, and sent a petition to the Court on his behalf. For this they were punished in a curious way. Hitherto Boston had been considered the chief town in the colony. Winthrop's house was there, and the General Court held its meetings there. It was now resolved that the Court should meet at Newtown, the place next in importance. Soon after this the yearly election of Governor and Assistants came on, and it almost seemed as if a civil war was at hand. Henry Vane, who had been Governor for the past year, was a young man of good family and education, and afterwards took a leading part among the statesmen of the English Commonwealth. He was, however, but a new comer in Massachusetts, and most likely the old settlers, Winthrop and his friends, looked on his youth and inexperience with some suspicion. Though Vane was not exactly one of Mrs. Hutchinson's party, he regarded her with more favor than most of the chief men did, and seems to have been opposed to the proceedings against her. In such a state of things the election was sure to be the signal for a great outbreak of angry feeling. Winthrop was elected Governor, and Vane and his chief supporters were not even chosen to be Assistants. After this a tumult arose and fierce speeches were made, and some even came to blows. The men of Boston, who had been wont to send an escort with the Governor on public occasions, now refused it. Before the end of the year a conference of all the churches was held to settle some way of dealing with these troubles. Vane, whose influence might have been a help to those accused, had gone back to England. At the conference, Wheelwright was put on his trial for a sermon which he had preached, and for his opinions and practice generally. Mrs. Hutchinson was charged with imputing false teaching to all the ministers in the country except those of Boston. Several others of her chief supporters were accused of having made a heretical and scandalous statement in their petition on behalf of Greensmith. For this offence Mrs. 'Hutchinson and Wheelwright were banished; the rest had to acknowledge their guilt and to yield up their arms, and were deprived of any office that they held. With this the troubles ended, and the churches of Massachusetts for a while enjoyed peace. All traces of the storm soon passed away. Wheelwright after a time confessed himself in error, and was allowed to return. Many of the others who had been punished, afterwards held offices,

and served as loyal citizens in the wars against the Indians. It gives one a good idea of the small size of Massachusetts, and from what a little seed a great nation has grown, when one sees the whole state thrown into agitation, and almost civil war, by an affair which in England would not have occupied the attention of a single county, or even a large town, and of which ninety-nine persons out of a hundred might never have heard. It shows one too how popular the government was in spite of all its severity, and how loyal the citizens were, when such an affair could pass over and leave no ill effects behind, especially as only the leaders were banished, and many

remained who might have served as the seed for a new faction.

Meanwhile, the colony was exposed to dangers from without as well as from within. Certain persons, Gardiner, Morton, and Ratcliffe, had been expelled from Massachusetts, the first two for disorderly conduct, the last for speaking ill of the government. They had complained to the English government of their ill-treatment. Such complaints were readily received. Archbishop Laud and his party must from the first have looked on the colony with dislike and distrust. The harslmess with which the Browns had been treated would increase this feeling. Ratcliffe too seems to have been dealt with severely; and though Gardiner and Morton were probably disorderly and vicious men, they could easily make up a fair-sounding story against the colonists. It is scarcely likely that the king, when he granted the charter, ever imagined what sort of fruit it would bear. The Privy Council at once took measures to control the independent spirit of Massachusetts. In February, 1634, they issued an order setting forth that many disaffected persons were crossing over to New England, and that, as evil consequences would result from this, all ships should for a while be stopped from sailing thither. At the same time they demanded that the Massachusetts charter should be laid before them. Two months later the king issued a commission to Laud and ten others, empowering them to punish ecclesiastical offences in the colonies, to remove governors, to appoint judges and magistrates, to establish courts, and to revoke all charters and patents that might have been unfairly obtained. A little later, Sir Ferdinando Gorges laid before the Privy Council a scheme for dividing New England into a number of provinces, each under a Lieutenant-Governor, with one Governor over the whole, all to be appointed by the Crown. Such proceedings naturally alarmed the colonists. Even at this early time they showed that, if needful, they were prepared to resist any attack on their liberties. fortified three of their chief towns, Boston, Charlestown, and Dorchester, and made arrangements for the collection and safe keeping of arms. A commission was appointed to manage all military affairs, with power, if war broke out, to imprison, or even put to death, any persons that refused to obey them. At the same time it was enacted that the freemen should no

longer take the oath of allegiance to the king, but instead, should swear to be faithful and true to the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

In 1635 the Plymouth Company came to an end. Its existence had done no good, either to members of the company or to others, and accordingly they resolved to surrender their patent to the king. The only lasting effect of the company was to create confusion by the reckless way in which it had granted the same lands over and over again to different occupants. In the autumn of 1635 vigorous measures were taken by the English government against Massachusetts. A writ of Quo warranto, like that which had overthrown the Virginia Company, was issued, and the Massachusetts charter was declared null and void. Two events which could have been in no way reckoned on made the attack vain. The ship in which Gorges was coming out to support the interests of the English government fell to pieces almost as soon as launched. About the same time Mason, a leading member of the Plymouth Company, a friend of Gorges, and a most energetic opponent of Massachusetts, died. For three years no further attempt was made to put the judgment against the charter in force. But in 1638 some more disaffected people who had been punished by the Massachusetts government for disorderly and seditious conduct, came to England with complaints, and stirred up the home government against the colony. A strict order was sent out demanding the charter. The colony sent back, not the charter, but a protest against the injustice of taking it from them. It seemed as if they would have either to keep it by force or to yield. But the English government soon had more serious matters to attend to at home. By 1639 the Scotch were in arms against Charles I. The civil war took off all attention from the colonies, and when peace was restored, the Puritans had the upper hand, and the charter of Massachusetts was safe.



SETTLERS' FIRST HOME.

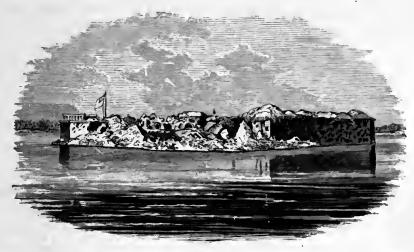
. Of all the American colonies, Massachusetts was the first, and for a long while the only one, which became itself the parent of other independent states. About 1634 the people in three of the townships of Massachusetts

-Newtown, Watertown, and Dorchester-being pressed by lack of pasture for their cattle, formed a scheme for settling the lands which lay to the west beyond the boundary of Plymouth. This was a fertile land, watered by a broad river, the Connectient. One reason for the movement was the fear that the Dutch, who were already settled on the river Hudson, might step in and occupy this land. It was thought too that some of the leading men at Newtown wished for more influence and independence than they enjoyed there. The measure was at first much opposed in the General Court. It was thought that it would weaken the settlement, and take off some of their most valued ministers. Moreover, the Dutch had already set up a fort on the river, and might resent any trespass there. The Indians also in that quarter were many and fierce. The home government too might disapprove of the settlers moving into lands to which they had no legal claim. Among those who were most anxious for the change were the people of Watertown. They, as we have seen, had been the first to resist the claim of the Governors and Assistants to impose taxes, and it is possible that both sides were influenced by the memory of that quarrel. Certain it is, at least, that the Assistants were opposed to the emigration, and the Deputies in favor of it. The latter view prevailed, and in 1635, with the leave of the Court, a settlement was formed. The emigrants set out too late in the year, and they suffered great hardships. The next year about a hundred emigrants with a hundred and sixty cattle set forth. By 1637 the new settlement contained three towns and eight hundred inhabitants.

The new colony was called Connecticut. At first the government was unsettled. It was held that the inhabitants were still subject to the state of Massachusetts; yet as early as 1636 they had a Court of their own, consisting of two deputies from each town, who managed all the public business of the settlement. This system went on for three years, but it was clear that they could not continue dependent on the government of a state separated from them by more than a hundred and thirty miles of wilderness. Accordingly in 1639 the freemen of Connecticut all met together and formed a Constitution very like that of Massachusetts. The whole body of freemen were to elect a Governor and six Magistrates, who were to administer justice and manage public affairs. Each town was to elect two Deputies, and those, together with the Governor and Assistants, were to form the supreme government. The chief points of difference between this Constitution and that of Massachusetts were two: 1. The freemen of each town only needed to be admitted by the other freemen of that town, and were not obliged to be elurch members: 2. No man could be governor for two years together. Massachusetts does not seem to have made any attempt to keep its hold over Connecticut, but allowed its inhabitants to set up a perfectly independent government. For the present, Connecticut had no charter or patent from

the Crown, and the constitution, like that of Plymouth, rested only on the agreement of the citizens.

While this state was being formed, an attempt was also made by a party in England to colonize the same country. In the autumn of 1635, just when the first migration was being made from Massachusetts, John Winthrop, the son of the Massachusetts governor, came out with a commission from Lord Brook, Lord Say and Sele, and others, to be the governor of a tract of land on the river Connecticnt. According to their orders, he established a fort at the mouth of the river, driving out a ship that had been sent by the Dutch to lay claim to the place. This settlement, for a while, had no connection with the towns founded from Massachusetts. But in 1644, Fenwick, the governor of the fort, made it over to the state of Connecticut, in return for certain duties to be levied on ships sailing past.



A RUDE FORT.

Soon after the settlement of Connecticut, New England was engaged in its first Indian war. The country near the river Connecticut was inhabited by the Pequods, a fierce and warlike tribe, numbering nearly a thousand warriors. For three or four years there were various paltry quarrels between the Pequods and the English, and some on each side were killed. The Pequods tried to strengthen themselves by an alliance with a neighboring tribe, the Narragansetts. Roger Williams, who had been banished from Massachusetts, now showed a noble spirit of forgiveness. Being able to speak the Indian language, he went at the risk of his own life to the Narragansetts chiefs, and persuaded them to have no dealings with the Pequods. They were the more easily persuaded to this as the Pequods had formerly been their enemies. Soon after, the Narragansetts sent an embassy to Boston, and made a firm alliance with England. The Mohegans, the only other

powerful tribe of Indians in that country, were also friendly to the colonists. Thus the Pequods were left to stand alone. If it had been otherwise, and if the Indian tribes had united, it is possible that the settlers might have been exterminated. In 1637 the colonists considered that they had good cause for beginning the war, and a force from Massachusetts and Connecticut marched against the Indians. They attacked the chief fort, where the Pequods had placed their women and children. The Indians for a while resisted, till the settlers set the fort on fire. The light wood and wickerwork was at once in a blaze. All within, men, women, and children, to the number of six hundred, perished. Of the besiegers only two fell. The colonists then pushed on into the Pequod country, desoluting and destroying everywhere, till nearly the whole tribe was exterminated. About two hundred survived, some of whom were kept as slaves by the settlers, while the rest lived scattered among the other Indian tribes. Their chief, Sasacus, fled to the Mohawks, by whom he was killed, and the nation of Pequods ceased to exist.

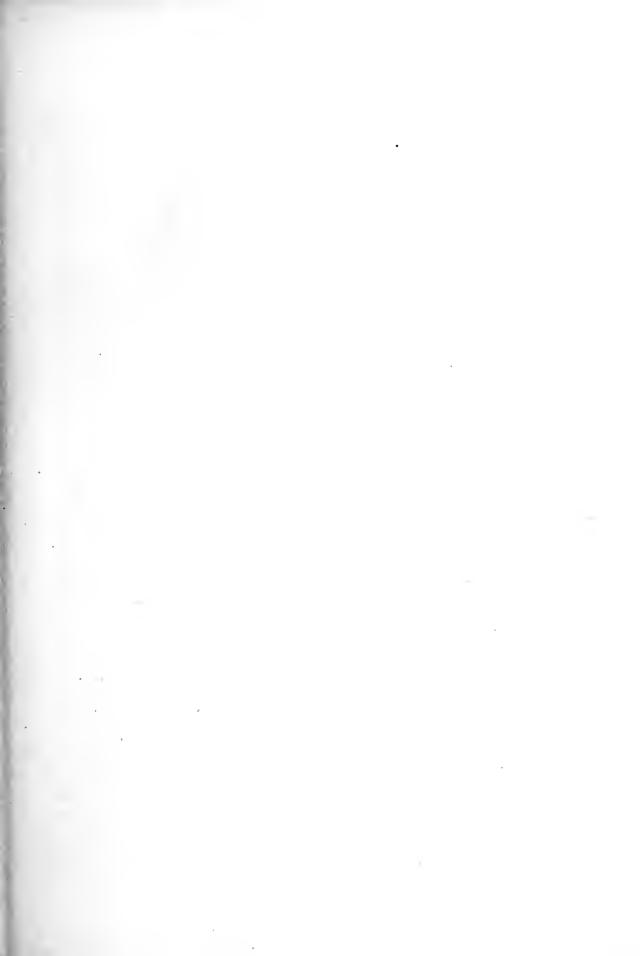


## CHAPTER VI.

THE SMALLER NEW ENGLAND COLONIES.

ESIDES the three more important Puritan colonies, there were other small settlements in the same neighborhood. All of these joined themselves sooner or later to the larger colonies. But some remained separate long enough to make it necessary that we should know something of their history. important of these was New Haven. This was founded by a small body of men from London and Massachusetts, some of them of good birth and education. They wished to establish a state which should in all its arrangements make the Bible its

rule of life. For this object, they quitted Massachusetts in 1638, and settled themselves at a place called Quinipiac on the coast, thirty miles to the west of the river Connecticut. Soon after, they changed the name to New Haven. For a year they lived without any fixed constitution, thinking it would be better to get some experience before they took the decisive step of forming a govern-At the end of that time they proceeded to settle a system of govern-As in Massachusetts, none but church members were to be freemen. They appointed twelve men, who were in their turn to choose seven who should draw up a constitution. The next year the freemen elected a Gov-



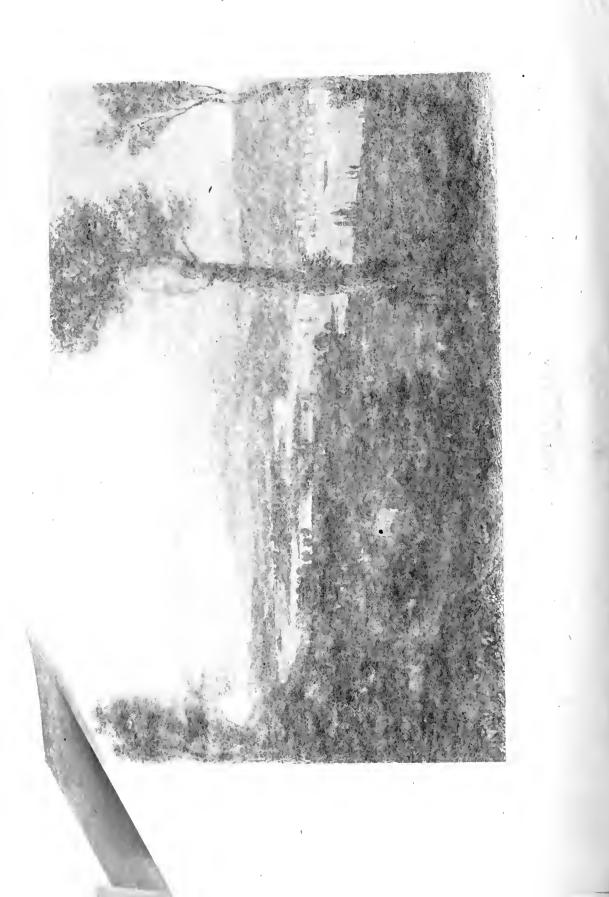
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MOUTH

ernor and four Deputies, and it was resolved that the whole body of free men should meet once a year to orassact public business. By 1641 the state had increased to three townships. The small independent settlements had sprung up near, called Guilford and Milford. These were like New Haven in their general principles and system of government. In 1643 they voluntarily joined themselves to New Tayen. It now became necessary to introduce the system of representatives. Accordingly a government was formed very like that of Massachusetts. There was a Govern a, a Deputy. Governor, and a body of Assistants elected by all the free en, and a besix of Representatives, two from each town. These were to meet once a year. Important lawshits were to be tried by the Assistants small cases by magisfrates elected by the freemen in each town. The whole number of householders in the five towns amounted to a hundred and twenty two. The most noticeable point about New Haven was the wealth of its inhabitants, which was greater than in any of the neighboring states. The town of New Haven was the landsomest and best built in New England, and some of the inhabitants displeased the people of Mas achusetts by the size and cost iness of their hone.

When Roger Williams was driven out of Massachusetts, he established himself with a small band of followers at a place which they called Providence, at the head of Narragansett Bay. In 1640 we find the first record of any regular covernment among them. The colony then contained thirt. nine members. All their affairs were rearriged by five than, called Arbitrators. There was not seem to have I in any fixed code or laws, no. and regular rules for the choice of these Arbitrators. Another's atlement much like this speake up in an island near Providence, cased by its comparts Rhode Islan - Phis was precied become . Mr. Hutchinson's followers when they were banished from Massachusetts. Here, too, there was at first no fixed code of laws. Affairs were canaged to a Judge and three Assist ants chosen of the whole people. In 1655 the settlement broke up has two independers badies, Newport and Postsmouth, but they were pitted a gather again in 16a. The whole sentement by that time contained about offer u-Indictants, but a more regular system of government was introduced. In this affairs were to be immaged by a Governor, a Deputy-Covernor, in 1 \(^{\infty}\) Assistant. The Governor and two Assistants were to be chosen? of the to cus, the Departy Governor and the other Assist, as for r. Neither here nor in Rhode Island was it necessary had from be church numbers. In 1644 Roger Williams returned to be got from the Commissioners for Plantations a patent incorpor Jence, Portsmouth, and Newport into one colony, with feet you e their own laws and constitution. Another town called " at once added to these. A President and four Assistants, or own, were



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chosen. In 1647 a very peculiar system of making laws was introduced. Six Deputies were chosen by each township; these formed the General Court. Either this Court, or any of the towns at a public meeting of the townsmen, might propose a law; this proposal was then sent round to the four towns, and all the freemen might vote for or against it. The votes were then collected, and, if the law was confirmed by a majority, it was passed: if not, it fell to the ground. Thus, no doubt, they hoped to give every man a direct share in making the laws, without putting all the inhab-



itants to the trouble of attending a general meeting. In the same year a code of laws was drawn up. Unlike the codes of the other New England states, this resembled the English law, and was evidently drawn up by some one familiar with that system. It is also noteworthy that the General Court sent persons accused of treason to England for trial. This was almost the only instance in which any of the New England colonies invited the mother country to interfere with its internal The next year disputes broke Coddington, the head of one party, went over to England, and returned with a patent constituting Newport and Portsmouth a separate state. This arrangement was strongly ob-

jected to by the other towns, and also by many of the inhabitants of Newport and Portsmouth. They believed that Coddington wished to join them to Massachusetts, and they disliked that scheme. Many of them were Baptists, and severe laws had lately been passed against that sect in Massachusetts, and some of them who had gone thither from Rhode Island had been flogged by order of the magistrates. The feud between Coddington and his opponents lasted three years, and each refused to acknowledge the authority of the other party as lawful. At last, in 1654, they were reconciled by Roger Williams. By his persuasion the four townships reunited under the patent of 1644. Williams himself was elected President. The management of affairs was handed over to the General Court of six deputies from each town, and the old code of laws was declared to be in force.

In 1638 Gorges obtained from the king a new charter, making him a proprietor of the province of Maine in New England. All the colonies that we have as yet considered were formed, either like Virginia and Massachu-

setts, by regular companies, or else like Plymouth and Connecticut, by bodies of men bound together by their own voluntary agreement for this purpose. There was, however, another class of colonies, dependent on a single proprietor or a small number of proprietors. In these cases, the king by a charter gave certain rights and powers to the proprietor, and he in his turn gave certain rights to the inhabitants. It will be better to consider this subject more fully when we come to the important proprietary colonies of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Carolina. The grant to Gorges included all the land between the Piscataqua and Kennebec rivers, as far as a hundred and twenty miles from the sea. His charter gave him almost kingly power over this territory. With the consent of the freeholders he could enact laws. By his own authority he could establish law courts, levy taxes, raise troops, and make war. The colony contained two settlements, York and Saco, and about three hundred citizens. Nevertheless Gorges, who seems to have had more activity than wisdom, drew up a most elaborate constitution, with enough of officials for the government of a great empire. The settlement of York alone was to be governed by a Mayor, twelve Aldermen, and twentyfour Common Councillors. Gorges never visited his colony, and before long the settlers threw aside this cumbrous government, and established a simpler y system for themselves. Little is known of the character and position of the earlier settlers in Maine. But as Gorges was no friend to the Puritans, and a strong partisan of the king, we may be almost sure that his settlers differed both in religion and politics from their neighbors in Massachusetts and Plymouth.

Several scattered settlements had been formed to the north of Massachusetts, in the neighborhood of the Piscataqua. Some of these were founded by settlers under the Plymouth Company, others by Mrs. Hutchinson's partisans when driven from Massachusetts. About 1641, some of these settlements of their own choice joined Massachusetts, and by 1643 one only remained independent. As many of these settlers were not Puritans, the Massachusetts government did not enforce the rule which held good in other towns, that all freemen must be church members. The one settlement which remained independent was called Lygonia. It was founded by some private settlers under a grant from the Plymouth Company. The only point to be noticed in its early history is, that part of the territory of Lygonia had already been granted to Gorges. Disputes accordingly arose with Maine. In these disputes the inhabitants of Lygonia appealed to Massachusetts. That colony declined to do anything in the matter, but Maine was not strong enough to enforce its claim. In 1646 the dispute was brought before the Commissioners for Plantations, who decided in favor of Lygonia. In one way these small settlements had an important effect; they prevented New England from being exclusively and entirely Puritan.

## CHAPTER VII.

THE NEW ENGLAND CONFEDERATION.

far we have considered the various English colonies to the east of the Hudson as separate provinces; we may now treat them as divisions of a single country, applying to all of them together the name of New England. The whole territory of New England extended about two hundred and fifty miles along the coast. Excepting the towns on the Connecticut, there were no settlements more than eight or ten miles from the sea. The whole English population amounted to about twenty-six thousand, of whom fifteen thousand belonged to

Massachusetts. The laws, customs, and manners of life throughout all the colonies were much alike; all, except the insignificant colonies on and near the Piscataqua, were composed mainly of Puritans. Iu none were there any very rich or very poor, or any class of wealthy landed gentry. Everywhere there were laws providing for the teaching of children. Grown-up citizens too were subject to strict public discipline. Expense in dress and habits likely to lead to disorder, such as card-playing and drinking healths, were forbidden. As the soil and climate of all the colonies was much alike, so was their industry and commerce. The chief exports were corn, salt, fish, and timber. In Massachusetts shipbuilding was a thriving business, while Plymouth depended more on trade with the Indians in fur and skins, and from an early time had trading houses up several of the rivers. important point of likeness, however, which ran through all the states, was their system of townships and churches. Each town was a society by itself, managing the chief part of its own affairs by public meetings of the whole body of townsmen, and by officers elected at these meetings. The police, the public roads, and the relief of the poor were all under the control of the separate townships, although, if they neglected their duties, they could be admonished, and even fined, by the colonial government. Moreover, when the colony levied a tax, it only declared that each town must pay a certain amount, and left the townsmen to settle how the payment should be divided among individuals. At the same time each town had a church of its own, and the congregation was for the most part identical with the township. Under this system every freeman gained a certain amount of practical training in public affairs.

With this likeness of habits and institutions running through all the

colonies, it was but natural that they should form some sort of political union. Till 1638 the two original colonies, Plymouth and Massachusetts, had little to do with one another, nor was that little always friendly. In 1634 one Hocking, with a vessel belonging to Lord Say and Sele, went to trade up the Kennebec. The men of Plymouth claimed the exclusive right of trading there, and resisted. A quarrel followed, in which Hocking shot one of his opponents and was himself killed. The matter was taken up by the Court of Massachusetts. As neither Hocking nor the ship came from Massachusetts, this was a sort of claim to deal with all questions which affected the peace of New England. After some discussion it was decided



LEYDEN STREET, PLYMOUTH, IN 1874.

that Hocking had only himself to blame. This does not seem to have caused any ill-feeling between the states, as immediately afterwards Plymouth proposed to Massachusetts to establish a joint trading-house on the Connecticut. There were also disputes about boundaries, but these were settled in a friendly way.

The first definite proposal for a union between the colonies was made in 1638; the reasons for it were plain enough. There was the danger always to be feared from the Indians. There was also the possibility of en-

croachments by the English government. If the king conquered the parliament, New England was almost sure to be one of his first victims. Danger also threatened from two other quarters. The French had by this time established themselves in Canada and in the country now called Nova Scotia, then Acadia. The city of Quebec had been founded in 1608, and, under the energetic government of Cardinal Richelieu, the great French minister, the colony had grown and prospered. Indeed, it is likely that, if the settlement of Massachusetts had been delayed for a few years, the whole territory north of the Hudson would have been seized by the French. The English and French settlers soon fell out. In 1613 Argall, who afterwards so misconducted himself as Governor of Virginia, had, without provocation, attacked and destroyed two of the French settlements. 1629, when England and France were at war, a small English fleet, under a brave sea-captain, David Kirk, captured Quebec, and destroyed or took all the French settlements on the American coast. But before the eapture was made peace had been declared, on the condition that everything taken after April 24, 1629, should be given back. Accordingly the captured territory was restored to France. In 1631, though England and France were at peace, the New Englanders heard that the French colonists were about to attack them, and made ready to resist. In the next year a French ship fell on a trading station belonging to Plymouth, and carried off goods worth five hundred pounds.

Another European settlement threatened New England from the opposite side. In 1609 Henry Hudson, one of the greatest of English seamen, had, in the service of the Dutch, explored the coast to the south-west of Massachusetts Bay and sailed up the river which now bears his name. The Dutch, who had just cast off the rule of Spain, were then one of the most enterprising nations in Europe. They soon occupied the country between Delaware Bay and the Connecticut, and gave it the name of New Netherlands. In 1627 they sent a friendly embassy to Plymouth. But as soon as New England began to extend itself towards the Connecticut the Dutch thought that their territory was being encroached on, and disputes arose. Twice the Dutch sent vessels to drive the English away from the Connecticut, but each time without success. Besides this, small disputes arose ever and again between the Dutch and the English on the borders.

As was natural, Connecticut, being one of the weakest colonies and nearest to the Dutch, was most anxious for some sort of league among the New England colonies. In September, 1642, proposals from Connecticut were laid before the court of Massachusetts. In the next year a union of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connectieut, and New Haven, was formed. Maine, Rhode Island, and Providence applied for admission, but were refused; the first because its political system was different from that of the

united colonies, the others on the ground of their disorderly condition. The form of the union was a Confederation. Each colony, that is to say, was to preserve its full independence in all internal matters, while at the same time there was to be a supreme government over all the colonies, with full control over their dealings with foreign states. Such a union is, looked at from within, a group of separate states; looked at from without, it is a single state. The government was entrusted to eight Federal Commissioners, two from each colony. The great defect of the Confederation was the superiority of Massachusetts to the other colonies. Its population was about fifteen thousand, that of the three smaller states scarcely three thousand each. In consideration of this it was agreed that if the Confederation went to war, Massachusetts was to send a hundred men for every forty-five from each of the other colonies. Besides, as the taxes levied for the defence of the Confederacy were to be proportioned to the population of each colony, Massachusetts had in two ways to bear the heaviest share of the common At the same time the constitution only gave an equal share in the management of affairs to each colony. The result of this was that Massachusetts repeatedly tried to exercise more power than the articles of the union gave her, and that the harmony, and even the existence, of the Confederation was thereby endangered.

As might have been expected, New England was a gainer by the victory of the parliament over the king. In 1642 the House of Commons passed a resolution freeing New England from the import and export duties levied on the other colonies. Two years later the Court of Massachusetts made a law that any one who should try to raise a party there for the king should be treated as an offender against the state. When the colonial commissioners appointed by parliament seized a Royalist vessel in Boston harbor, the question arose whether this act should be allowed. After some discussion, the Court decided not to resist. Their chief ground was that it would be foolish to quarrel with parliament, which was their best friend. At the same time, they made an important admission. It might be said, and it was said at a later time, that parliament had no authority over the colonies, because they had no representatives in the House of Commons. As a matter of form, all the land in America was reckoned, when it was granted by the king, to be in the manor of East Greenwich. Accordingly the Court of Massachusetts said that, as the colonists held their land in that manor, the parliamentary representatives of the borough or county which included that place, represented them also. In 1651 parliament demanded that Massachusetts should give up its charter and take another from them. For a year no notice was taken of this. At last the General Court of Massachusetts sent back a somewhat vague answer, setting forth all that the settlers had done and suffered in founding a colony, and expressing a hope that no change

would be made in its government. About this time, the General Court took a very independent step. It established a mint, and coined money. This practice lasted for thirty years. Cromwell himself, throughout his whole career as Protector, was a fast friend to New England. Twice he proposed to the settlers to change their abode. After his desolation of Ireland he wished to move them in there, and at a somewhat later time he proposed that they should emigrate to Januaica, which England had just taken from

Spain. The colonists declined both these offers. As had happened with Morton and Ratcliffe, the severity of Massachusetts towards offenders raised up enemies against her in England. About 1636 there came into New England one Gorton, a weak and hot-headed man, who held religious opinions disapproved of by the churches of Massachusetts. After getting into trouble in nearly every state in New England, at last, in 1641, he settled near Providence on land that he had bought from Miantonomo, chief of the Narragansetts. Near this was a small independent settlement called Pawtuxet, founded by some of Roger Williams's followers. These men complained of Gorton as a troublesome neighbor, and asked Massachusetts to protect them against him. Besides this, two Indians came to Boston and declared that the land which Miantonomo had sold was really theirs, and offered to submit themselves and their territory to Massachusetts. The Court of Massachusetts summoned Gorton and his companions to appear before them and answer these charges. Gorton, although he does not seem to have been altogether in the wrong, sent back, not a temperate answer, but a violent attack on the government and religion of Massachusetts. Thereupon the Court of Massachusetts, always severe in dealing with those who differed from it, seized Gorton and brought him to Boston in irons. There he took to preaching his religious doctrines, and got so many disciples that the Court was glad to hurry him out of the country, threatening him with death if he returned. He then lodged an appeal with the Commissioners for Foreign Plantations. They sent out orders that Gorton and his friends should be allowed to settle peaceably on the land which they had bought from the Indians. Massachusetts had already sent an agent, one Winslow, a leading man from the colony of Plymouth, to plead their cause against Gorton in England. When this order came out, they sent back an answer to be presented by Winslow. In this they boldly declared that the English government ought not to receive appeals against the Colonial governments, and that it was impossible for men in England to know what was good for a distant settlement. The Commissioners for Plantations wrote a very temperate answer, promising not to trespass on the lawful power of the Massachusetts government. At the same time they held out on the main point, and bade the General Court allow Gorton to live in peace. This was done, and the disturbance ended. Other inhabitants

of New England besides Gorton had grievances which they laid before the English government. Many of the inhabitants of Massachusetts, who stood high in position and character, had no share in the government, because their religious opinions would not allow them to join any of the New England churches. In 1646 a party, small in numbers, but including some of the best and ablest men in the colony, drew up a paper which set forth the above grievance, and laid it before the General Court. As soon as the Massachusetts settlers left the Church of England, they betook themselves to Independency, and Presbyterianism never found any favor with the generality of them. The conflict between the two sects was now raging in England. and the result seemed doubtful. The petitioners were for the most part Presbyterians, and the fears of the Independents were aroused. petitioners were brought before the Court, accused of having made false and scandalous charges against the churches and government of Massachusetts, and fined. Afterwards a rumor got about that they meant to appeal to the English government. Their papers were seized, and found to contain treasonable matter, whereupon the writers were again heavily fined. At last they made their way to England; but by that time the Independents had the upper hand, and nothing came of the appeal.

In the great controversy in England between the Presbyterians and Independents many of the chief writers on the Independent side came from New England. At the same time, the New Englanders did not keep to the pure Independent system. They found that their churches were threatened by enemies both in America and England, and would be in danger unless there was some union between them. In 1648 a meeting of all the churches in Massachusetts was held. It sat for a fortnight, and drew up a system of Church Discipline. This provided that similar meetings should be held from time to time. These were to have the power of advising and reproving the different churches. Any offending church might be refused a place in these meetings, and if it should be obstinate, might be handed over for punishment to the General Court.

Till 1646 there was no open quarrel between the Confederation and its Dutch neighbors. In that year, Peter Stuyvesant, a man of high spirit and great courage, was appointed Governor of New Netherlands. One of his first acts was to seize a Dutch smuggling vessel in New Haven harbor. The men of New Haven resented this as an outrage, and Stuyvesant made matters worse by addressing a letter to "New Haven in New Netherlands," as if laying claim to the territory. He then proposed to refer the dispute to the Governors of Plymouth and Massachusetts. The Court of Massachusetts thought that the question would be better referred to the Federal Commissioners. Stuyvesant demurred to this, and for four years the question remained open. In 1650 Stuyvesant himself came to Hartford in Connecticut

to settle the matter in dispute. His chief complaint was that, by occupying Connecticut and New Haven, the English had encroached on Dutch territory. The grievances of the English were certain acts of dishonesty on the part of Dutch traders at Hartford. They also accused the Dutch of assisting criminals to escape from New England. After some discussion, arbitrators were appointed, who settled the question in dispute, and fixed a boundary line between the Dutch and English territories. Disputes soon broke out again. In the next year war was declared between England and Holland. Rumors began to run through the English settlements that the Dutch were conspiring with the Indians for a general attack on New England. Whether there was any good ground for this belief it is impossible now to say. But only twenty-four years earlier the Dutch had cruelly massacred a body of English traders at Amboyna, an island in the Moluceas. This had roused the English people to a great pitch of fury. With this fresh in their memory, the New Englanders could hardly be blamed for somewhat readily believing the charges against the Dutch. So strong was their feeling, that three of the four colonies wanted to declare war. Massachusetts alone resisted.



That colony was at once the most powerful and the least exposed to the Dutch, and therefore had least to fear. Accordingly, presuming on their greater strength, they declared through their commissioners, that, in spite of the decision of the Federal Court, they would not take part in the war. When the other commissioners represented that this was a breach of their agreement, the Massachusetts commissioners declined to answer them, and asked them to proceed to other business. The commissioners refused to do this till the dispute was settled. Massachusetts still held out. In their distress, Connecticut and New Haven applied to England for lielp. Cromwell replied to the appeal by sending a fleet, with a land force on board. Connecticut and New

Haven at once raised forces to assist them. Massachusetts would take no part in the war, but allowed the English commander to raise five hundred

volunteers in their territory. Before operations could begin, news came of the utter defeat of the Dutch in the English Channel. This ended the war, and we hear no more of the disputes with the New Netherlands. The affair served to show the weakness of the Confederation, and how utterly its affairs were under the control of Massachusetts.

About the time when the Confederation was founded, a sort of civil war was going on in the French settlement of Acadia between two rival claimants for the governorship, La Tour and D'Aulney. In 1642 La Tour made overtures to Massachusetts, asking for help, and offering in return a free trade between the New England ports and those under his jurisdiction. He also appealed to the religious sympathies of the New Englanders, as he was a Protestant and D'Aulney a Roman Catholic. Massachusetts declined to make any alliance with La Tour, but allowed him to raise soldiers in her territory, and to charter vessels in her harbors. In return, he granted them free trade with his ports. In consequence of this proceeding, a law was made at the next meeting of the Federal Commissioners, forbidding any state to allow a levy in its territory without the leave of the whole Confed-Soon after La Tour had been to Massachusetts, D'Aulney also tried to make an alliance with that colony. No assistance was given him, but a firm peace was made, and it was arranged that there should be free trade between their territories. Soon after, a ship which was sailing from Massachusetts with supplies for La Tour, was seized by D'Aulney, and the erew severely treated. This led to a quarrel, but the Federal Commissioners interfered, and friendship was restored. La Tour was then defeated and driven out. The men of Boston fitted him out with a ship, but he ungratefully set the English part of the crew on shore in the dead of winter, and sailed off on a voyage of piracy. The war ended with the accidental death of D'Aulney and the establishment of La Tour as Governor; but after his misconduct the New Englanders had nothing more to do with the quarrel. In 1650 the Governor of New France made proposals to New England for an offensive alliance against the Iroquois, or Five Nations, the most powerful and warlike of all the Indian races. Hitherto these Indians had not had much to do with the English, but they had never shown any hostile feeling towards them. They had recently made a fierce and successful onslaught on the Abenaquis, a nation allied to the French, and including many Christian converts. The New Englanders refused to have anything to do with the quarrel, and at a later time the Iroquois proved valuable allies against the French.

The dealings of the Confederation with the Indians, like those with the Dutch, showed the undue power of Massachusetts. Miantonomo, the Narragansett chief, was for some time suspected of designs against the New Englanders. This charge rested chiefly on the evidence of Uncas, the chief of

the Mohegans. He and his people had always been fast friends to the English. and were enemies to the Narragansetts. Miantonomo too was the friend and ally of Gorton, and this no doubt embittered many of the settlers against him. In 1642 the question of declaring war on him came before the Federal Commissioners. Massachusetts, in opposition to the other three States, was for peace, and prevailed. Soon after, war broke out between Miantonomo and Uncas. The former was defeated and taken prisoner. Uncas consulted the Federal Commissioners as to how he should deal with his captive. Their advice was that Miantonomo should be put to death, but without torture. Uncas followed this counsel. Next year the war between the Mohegans and the Narragansetts was renewed. The Confederacy at once prepared for war-this time without any dispute. The Narragansetts, overawed by this. came to terms, and a treaty was made. By this the Narragansetts bound themselves to pay a yearly tribute to the Confederacy. But the tribute was irregularly paid, and had to be extorted by force. It was even rumored that the Narragansetts were trying to bring down the Iroquois upon the English. At length, in 1650, the Confederacy sent a small force into the country of the Narragansetts and seized Pesacus, their chief. This struck such terror into them that for a while they left the English in security. Danger soon threatened the English from another tribe, the Nyantics, allies of the Narragansetts. They it was with whom the Dutch were thought to be plotting against New England. Moreover, they had molested some Indians who were friendly to the English. As Massachusetts refused to believe the charge against the Dutch, it was but reasonable that she should oppose the war against the Nyantics, and she did so. This time, however, she was overruled, and a force was sent out under the command of one Willard, a Massachusetts man. Owing to his slackness the Indians were allowed to retire into a strong position, and the troops went home without striking a blow. Thus it was again seen how useless it was for the Confederacy to attempt any measure which was disapproved of by Massachusetts.

Another dispute arose in which Massachusetts showed the same overbearing temper. As we have seen, the Government of Connecticut had bought and maintained a fort at Saybrook. To repay them for this, they charged toll on all goods carried up or down the river Connecticut on which the fort stood. The men of Springfield, a town on the river within the boundary of Massachusetts, refused to pay this toll, and the Government of Massachusetts backed them in their refusal. The dispute was referred to the Federal Commissioners, who decided in favor of Connecticut. The Court of Massachusetts then drew up an answer making proposals very dangerous to the Confederacy. They suggested that Massachusetts should, in consideration of her greater size and services, be allowed three Commissioners. They also proposed to lessen the power of the Federal Commissioners

by limiting their meetings to one in every three years, and by a law that, if any colony chose not to follow the advice of the Commissioners, this should



be considered no breach of the agreement, and no power should be employed to enforce such advice. At the same time they protested against the judg-

ment of the Commissioners about the toll. The Commissioners refused to Thereupon the Court of Massachusetts, in retaliation, imposed a duty on all goods imported into their territory from any of the three other colonies. The Commissioners drew up a remonstrance, and appealed to Massachusetts whether such conduct "agreed with the law of love and the tenor and import of the Articles of Confederation." In the next

year Massachusetts took off the duty, and the dispute ended.

About this time a religious sect made its first appearance in New England, which afterwards played an important part in American history. These were the Quakers, or, as they called and still call themselves, the Friends. Their founder was one George Fox, a cobbler. The very first members of the sect were for the most part wild and untaught fanatics. They went to every part of the world, to Germany, the East, and America, preaching their doctrines, and often annoying and insulting those who would not hear them. They even went to Italy and Turkey in the hope of converting the Pope and the Sultan. In 1654 their writings were forbidden by the Court of Massachusetts. Two years later some of them appeared there in person. They were at once brought before the Court and examined. They railed at the officials, and, for this and their opinions, were banished. In the same year a law was passed, that all Quakers coming into the colony should be flogged, and that any shipmaster bringing them in, or any person entertaining them or having their books, should be banished. In the following May, Quaker meetings were forbidden by law. Nevertheless Quakerism spread, and in October a law was passed, that if any Quakers should return after they had been once banished, they should be put to death. During the next two years this law was put in force five times. Winthrop, the Governor of Connecticut, son of the former Governor of Massachusetts, begged for the lives of the offenders; but the Deputies, encouraged by the Church elders, stood firm. At last public feeling showed itself so strongly that the Court gave way. They did not confess themselves in the wrong by formally repealing the former law, but they practically set it aside, by ordering that Quakers should be flogged in every town in the colony. From that time no more were put to death. In Plymouth and New Haven, Quakers were also flogged. In Connecticut, thanks to Winthrop, they were almost free from persecution. In Rhode Island alone they escaped it altogether, and found such a refuge as the early Puritans had found in Holland. The Federal Commissioners wrote to the Government of Rhode Island to remonstrate with them on their conduct. In their answer the Rhode Islanders defended themselves by saying that they had found that, where the Quakers are: suffered to declare themselves freely, there they least desire to come; and that they are likely to gain more followers by the conceit of their patient sufferings than by consent to their pernicious sayings."

## CHAPTER VIII.

NEW ENGLAND FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE REVOLUTION OF 1688.

The Restoration the management of the colonies was given to a special Board called the Council for the Plantations. A few months later, twelve Privy Councillors were appointed as a Committee to settle the government of New England. No immediate change took place. But it was at once clear that the New Englanders feared danger from the restored monarchy. Rumors reached them from their friends in England that Virginia and the West India Islands were forbidden to trade with them, and that a

Governor over all the New England colonies was about to be sent out from Moreover, the Quakers had been laying their grievances before the king. The Court of Massachusetts at once sent over addresses to the king and the parliament. In both they expressed a hope that they might keep that freedom in quest of which they had faced such toils and dangers. They also pointed out the extreme obstinacy and insolence of the Quakers, and declared that if they would but have promised to stay away from Massachusetts, they would have been pardoned. The address to the king was answered by a letter with general promises of friendship and good treatment. At the same time it forbade the colonists to inflict any bodily punishment on the Quakers, and ordered that they should be sent over to England for trial. This order was disregarded. By obeying it the colonists would have given up their right of trying all offences in the colony, a point on which they always stood firm. Two years later the law condemning Quakers to be flogged was re-enacted, though it was granted as a favor that it should only be inflicted in three towns. The position of the settlers now became a difficult one. They wished to stand well with the king, and at the same time to be on their guard against encroachment on their rights. In the following March (1661) the Court of Massachusetts compelled John Eliot, a leading minister, to apologize for a book he had written teaching doctrines hostile to monarchy. Soon after, they drew up a very important paper. It was a formal declaration, setting forth the rights of the settlers and the duties which they owed to the Crown. It declared that the whole body of freemen had power to add to their own number, to appoint officers, and to carry on government; and that there was no appeal from them, un-

less their laws were contrary to those of England. They claimed the right to make war in defence of their own country, and declared that any tax injurious to the colony and contrary to any of its laws was an infringement of their rights. In August the king was formally proclaimed in Massachusetts. The other New England colonies soon did likewise. New Haven, however, was so slow about it that the Court of Massachusetts at length warned the government of the danger of delay. During the same year an event happened which gave the New Englanders some cause for uneasiness. Just before the king was restored, two of the judges who had sentenced Charles I.—Goffe and Whalley—came to America. For some while they lived openly in the neighborhood of Boston, and were well received by many of the chief men. But in November, 1660, when they had been here about three months, tidings came from England that all the king's judges were to be pardoned except seven, of whom Goffe and Whalley were two. Thereupon they fled to New Haven. In March, orders came to seize them. but their friends hid them; no hard matter in a wild country. They escaped from their pursuers, lived in hiding, and died peaceably in New Though the authorities in Massachusetts do not seem to have furthered their escape, or to have failed in any way to obey the orders from England, yet the matter might easily have been turned against the colony by its enemies. With all these causes for alarm, the Court of Massachusetts resolved to send over two men to appear on behalf of the colony before the king. They chose Simon Bradstreet, one of the original settlers, and John Norton, a leading minister. They were graciously received by the king, and brought back a letter from him to the Court of Massachusetts. promised to respect their patent and charter. At the same time he ordered that the right of voting should be given to all freeholders, whether they were Church-members or not, that the services of the Church of England should be allowed, that the colonists should take the oath of allegiance, and that for the future justice should be administered in the king's name. colonists would not have been injured by granting any of these demands, but they would have been giving up that right of self-government which they had so often claimed. They gave way so far that all legal papers were drawn up in the king's name, but they referred the other matters to a committee, and nothing was done about them. So indignant were the people at the matter, that they vented their wrath in abuse of Bradstreet and Norton. The latter died in a few months, broken-hearted, as it was thought, at the ingratitude of his countrymen.

For two years after the king's letter came out, Massachusetts had no important dealings with the home government. But in 1664 four Commissioners were sent out by the king to set matters in order in New England. Their chief instructions were to settle the disputes about boundaries, to

remedy the grievances of those who were deprived of the rights of citizens, and to inquire into the truth of certain complaints brought by the Indians against the settlers. They had power to hear complaints and appeals, and



to "proceed in all things for the providing for and settling the peace and security" of New England. They were also to "dispose the people to an entire submission and obedience to the king's government," and, if possible, to persuade them to give the king the right of naming the governor of the colony and the commander of the militia. At the same time there is

nothing to show that this was to be carried out except by full consent of the colonists themselves. The only one of the Commissioners who had had any dealings with New England before was Samuel Maverick. He was one of the men who in the time of the Commonwealth had pleaded the cause of those who were not Church-members, and for this had been fined by the Court. His presence on the Commission may have served to alarm the colonists. In July, 1664, the Commissioners arrived at Boston. Their first request was for help against New Netherlands, as the Dutch were then at war with England. This was granted. In obedience to the Commissioners, the law was repealed which required that freemen should be churchmembers. The Court then drew up an address to the king. In this they set forth that their charter gave them the privilege of being governed by rulers of their own choosing, and that this was taken from them by the appointment of the Commissioners. They also declared that to set up a government directly appointed by the king in the colony would increase taxation, impoverish the inhabitants, and thus destroy their trade and hurt England. During the whole stay of the Commissioners in Massachusetts they were engaged in petty quarrels and bickerings with the colonists. The Court showed a fixed determination not to comply with the demands of the king, while the Commissioners took no pains to make their requirements less unpleasant by a courteous and conciliatory manner. On the main point, whether the colony had complied with the king's instructions of 1662, the Commissioners could get no definite answer from the Court. In all the other New England colonies the Commissioners met with a friendly reception, and on their return the king wrote letters to Connecticut and Plymouth, praising them for their obedience, and contrasting it with the stubborn conduct of Massachusetts.

If Massachusetts seemed likely to lose by the Restoration, Rhode Island and Connecticut were gainers by it. Rhode Island had proclaimed the king before any other of the New England colonies. At the same time they sent over an agent to England to ask for a charter. Their exclusion from the New England confederation possibly told in their favor at the English Court. In July 1663, they received a charter constituting them a separate colony. The election of the governor was left to the freemen of the colony, and the existing system of government was in no way changed. The charter also gave full religious liberty to all sects. Connecticut met with like favor. This was probably due to the influence of its governor, Winthrop, who himself went over to plead their cause. He was a man of good breeding and education, and seems to have ingratiated himself with the king and his Lord Treasurer, Clarendon. At the same time that the charter was granted to Rhode Island, Connecticut also received one confirming the existing constitution. These two charters were so carelessly drawn up that the lands

assigned to each colony overlapped. Thus a dispute arose, which, however, was fortunately settled before either of the charters were sent out.

The Connecticut charter gave rise to more serious trouble. It included the whole territory of New Haven, and thus empowered Connecticut to annex that colony. The people of New Haven had incurred the displeasure of the king in the matter of Goffe and Whalley, and it is not impossible that this charter was in part designed to punish them. When the people of New Haven learned what had been done, they petitioned the king not to unite them to Connecticut. Winthrop, who was still in England, hearing of this petition, promised that no union should be made except by the free consent of New Haven. But the government of Connecticut did not consider that Winthrop had any power to bind them by such a promise, and, when the charter arrived, they required the people of New Haven to submit. New Haven for a while held out, and was supported by the Federal Commissioners from Plymouth and Massachusetts. The union was at length brought about by the news that Commissioners were coming out from England. It was clearly better for New Haven to form part of a colony which had just got a liberal charter, than to face the Commissioners without any charter, and with the king's displeasure hanging over it. The Federal Commissioners represented this to the government of New Haven, and in 1664 the two colonies were united. This practically put an end to the New England confederation. For the future the Commissioners only met once in three years, and we hear but little of their action in important matters.

After the departure of the Commissioners, New England enjoyed a period of security and great prosperity. Under the Commonwealth, Puritans had been too well off in England to care to emigrate, and New England had not received many fresh settlers. But now, the Act of Uniformity deprived some two thousand non-conforming ministers of the livings of which they had possessed themselves under the Commonwealth, and by leading many to seek refuge in New England, furnished the colonies with some of their ablest Trade also throve. In spite of the Navigation Act, no customhouse was built; and as all the officers of the colony, from the governor downwards, were independent of the home government, there was little chance of an unpopular law being strictly put in force. Moreover, the fire of London and the Dutch war so fully occupied the English government that for a while it neglected colonial affairs. Yet the inhabitants of Massachusetts had much cause for uneasiness. From the outset their State had only existed by the sufferance of the English government. Its charter was merely the charter of a trading company. It gave no power to enact laws, to inflict punishment, to form alliances, or to make war. Massachusetts had indeed been allowed to grow under this charter into a free and prosperous community, and it is no wonder that she should have been prepared to hold

fast by privileges which she had so long enjoyed. Yet it was certain that in all that she had done she had exceeded and misused the powers granted her; and no tribunal, however friendly, could help ruling that her charter was forfeited. Other things might, and for a while did, occupy the home government; but the blow was sure to come at last. Besides there was danger within the colony. Riches had increased, and the old Puritan severity of temper and principle had become weaker. A race of men had grown up, less attached to the ideas and habits of their fathers, easily dazzled by the greater splendor and grace of English life, and therefore inclined to look favorably on anything which drew the colony closer to the mother country. Even among those who were for holding fast to their independence, there were two parties. One was for a moderate and conciliatory policy; the other opposed all concessions, and objected to sending over agents to England, or acknowledging the acts of trade as binding on the colonists.

New England was soon threatened from another quarter. For the last thirty years the settlers had been at peace with the Indians. Something



KING PHILIP

had been done towards converting and civilizing them. In 1643 Thomas Mayhew, a Massachusetts Puritan, obtained a grant of certain small islands off the coast of Plymouth, but forming no part of its territory. Here his son, a minister, established a small settlement of Christian Indians. John Eliot followed his example, and villages were formed in Massachusetts, inhabited by converts, living by husbandry and handierafts. Thus by 1674 there were in New England more than two thousand Christian converts. Yet little had been done to bring the whole race of Indians into friendly rela-

tions with the settlers. The unissionaries had done their work by drawing out small bodies of Indians and separating them from the great mass, not by attempting to carry Christianity and civilization into the heart of the Indian country. Such an attempt would perhaps have been idle. The villages of praying Indians, as they were called, probably did something to make the rest of the natives keep aloof from the English. They saw that, in order to become Christians and friends of the white men, they must give up their free life of hunting, and take to ways that they looked on as disgraceful. They saw too that, even so, they could not really win the friendship or the respect of the English. The converted Indians too often lost the happiness of the savage, without gaining that which belongs to civilized life. The friendship between the Plymouth settlers and Massasoit lasted during his life. His two sons, as a token of respect for the English, took the names of Alexander and Philip. Yet, after their father's death, they were suspected of treacherous designs. During Alexander's reign no open war broke out, but the settlers, thinking that he was plotting against them, seized him and carried him by force to Boston. Soon after, he died, and was succeeded

by Philip, a man of great ability and courage.

The Plymouth settlers had for some years been trying to weaken the Indians, by buying up their lands and leaving them only some necks of land running out into the sea, where, being surrounded by water on three sides, they could be more easily kept in check. In 1670 Philip was suspected of intrigues with the Narragansetts against the English, and the Court of Plymouth demanded that he should give up his arms. He sent in seventy guns, and promised the rest, but kept them. Soon after, however, he came himself to Plymouth, and made a treaty, by which he owned himself subject to the king of England and the Government of Plymouth, and promised not to make any war without the consent of the English. It may be doubted whether the Indians, in this and like treaties, understood clearly the nature of their own promises. In 1674 Sausamon, a Christian Indian, warned the English that Philip was plotting against them. Soon after Sausamon was killed by three Indians, employed, as was believed, by Philip. For this crime they were tried and executed at Plymouth. Philip and his subjects were not ready for an outbreak, but they saw that they were deteeted, and must strike at once or never. Accordingly, in the spring of · 1675 they invaded the English territory. They did not march in a body, but, following their own mode of warfare, fell upon the settlers in small parties wherever a chance offered. In spite of the long peace with the Indians, the settlers had not neglected the means of defence. All the male inhabitants were bound to be provided with arms and ammunition, and they often met for military exercise. Again, traditions of warfare with the Pequods did much to prepare the younger generation of New Englanders for contests with the Indians. But no drill can supply the want of actual practice in war, especially for irregular fighting in the forest, and for a while it seemed as if the settlers would be worsted. If the Indians had only been united, it is not unlikely that the settlers would have been exterminated. But Philip had been hurried into war before his plots were ripe, and many of the Indians were taken by surprise, and were not ready for action. In July the settlers marched into the Narragansetts' country and compelled that tribe to make a treaty, whereby they promised to give no help to Philip or his people, but to kill or deliver up to the English any who might enter their territory. In the next winter the English seemed to have the enemy at their merey. They hemmed in Philip on a narrow neck of land running out into the sea, where there seemed to be But Philip and his bravest warriors made their way to the mainland, either swimming or on rafts. Many who had hitherto stood aloof now took up arms, and ravaged the English country. In the words of a New England writer, "there was no safety to man, woman, nor child; to him who went out or to him who came in. Whether they were asleep or awake, whether they journeyed, labored, or worshiped, they were in continual jeopardy." The settlers in their rage forgot all the restraints of justice and humanity. Some wished to massacre all the Christian Indians, lest they should turn traitors. In one town the magistrates refused to put to death two captive Indians on mere suspicion of their guilt. On Sunday, as the women of the place were coming away from their meeting-house, they fell on the two Indian prisoners in a body, and killed them. As winter came on the hopes of the Indians declined. They had been unable to sow their corn during summer, and the war left them no leisure for hunting. They were driven to live on roots and every kind of garbage. Many fell sick and died. In November the English heard that the Narragansetts had



PALISADED BUILDING.

received some of Philip's men as friends. They at once determined to prevent the union of the two tribes, and marched into the Narragansett country with a thousand men. They reached the chief village unchecked, and attacked it. The Indians opened so fierce a fire, that for a while the assailants were kept at bay. At last they stormed the fort, and the In-

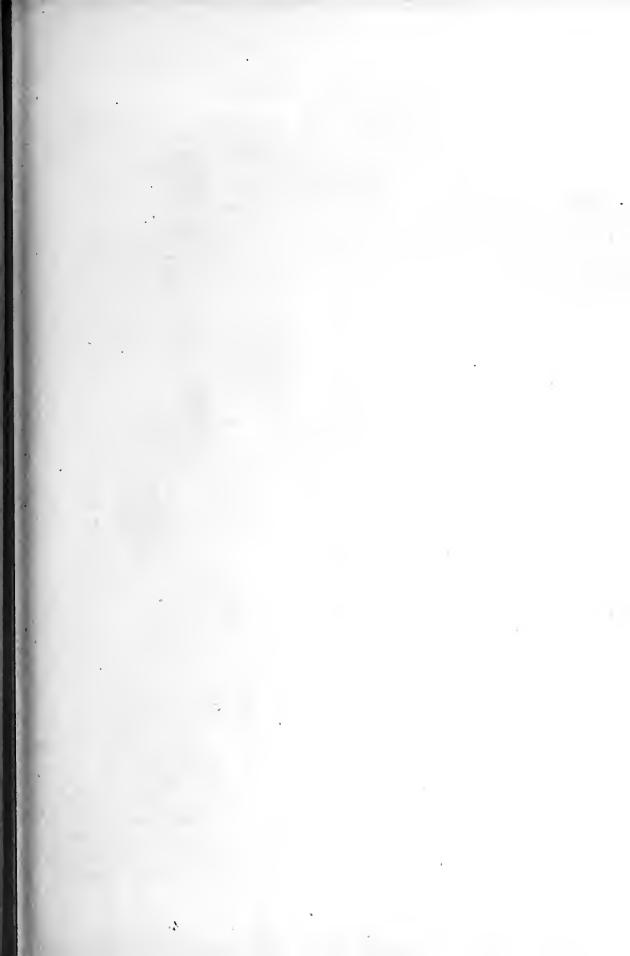
dians fled, leaving their stores, their women and children, and many old, sick, and wounded. The English then set fire to the village, and of those who had been left behind some three hundred perished in the flames. The settlers lost about one hundred and seventy men, many of whom died from their wounds and the severity of the weather. Of the Indians more than a thousand fell, of whom seven hundred were fighting men. During the next summer Philip and his men again attacked the English settlements; but, though they did much damage, they were too much weakened to have any chance of lasting success. Philip's forces were destroyed; he was driven from place to place, and at last, in August, he was shot by a deserter from his own side. Before the winter the whole of his tribe, save a few who escaped to the west, were either slain or captured. Among the prisoners was Philip's son, a child of three years old. Some of the settlers wished to put him to death, but the more humane party prevailed, and he was sent, with many of his fellow-prisoners, as a slave to the Bermudas. The settlers had lost six hundred men; whole towns were destroyed, and about six hundred houses burnt to the ground.

In 1676 another Indian war brode out on the Piscataqua. The chief tribe in that quarter were the Tarrateens. Among their chiefs was one Squanto, who, by claiming magical powers, had gained great influence over his countrymen. One day, as his wife was traveling down the river with her infant child, she met some English sailors, who wantonly upset her

canoe. The woman and child escaped, but the child soon afterwards died from the mishap. The savages, urged on by Squanto, and encouraged by the example of Philip, fell upon the settlers. For three years the war raged, and many lives were lost on both sides. In 1676 a large number of the Indians made peace with the settlers, but this was soon broken through the treachery of one of the English, Major Waldron. He suspected that the Indians were plotting to break the peace, and he resolved to be beforehand with them. With this aim he invited four hundred of them to a sham fight. The Indians, by agreement, fired off their guns first. Before they could reload, the English surrounded them, and took them prisoners. Two hundred were sent to Boston; some of those who had slain Englishmen were put to death, and the rest sold as slaves. The Indians never forgot this treachery, and some thirteen years later, during another war, Waldron was captured by the treachery of an Indian who pretended to be his friend, and cruelly tortured to death. The capture of these Indians probably did the English more harm than good, since it taught their enemies that there was no safety in submission, and that their only chance was to fight it out. So hard pressed were the English that in 1678 they were glad to make peace. They agreed to pay the Indians a bushel of corn for every English household, on condition that they might inhabit their former settlements in peace. This was the first treaty ever made with the Indians on terms disadvantageous to the English. One important event occurred during this war. I have already spoken of the confederacy of the Five Nations, called by the English the Mohawks, and by the French the Iroquois. bered some three thousand warriors, and their lands reached from the frontier of New Netherlands to the Canadian lakes. But, beyond those bounds, they exercised a supremacy over many tribes who did not belong to the confederacy, but who paid them tribute and obeyed their commands. Happily for the English, the Mohawks were unfriendly to the New England Indians. They were also hostile to the French, and they may have known something of the enmity between the French and the English, and so have been inclined to favor the latter. In 1677 two ambassadors were sent from the settlers on the Piscataqua to the Mohawks. They were well received, and the Mohawks promised to attack the Tarrateens. No great result seems to have come of this at the time, but it was the beginning of a long and useful alliance. The conduct of the settlers during these wars inereased the displeasure of the home government. It was thought that they might have made shorter work of their enemies if they had been willing to ask help from England, but that their pride and independence had withheld them.

In 1676 Massachusetts became engaged in a dispute about boundaries. In 1629 John Mason had obtained from the Plymouth Company a grant of

all the land between the rivers Merrimac and Piscataqua. But the grant made two years before to the Massachusetts Company had for its northern boundary a line three miles north of the Merrimac. The Massachusetts government had always contended that this boundary was a straight line drawn from three miles beyond the northernmost part of the Merrimac to the sea. This would have given them all the settlements on the Piscataqua. Mason's heirs, on the other hand, contended that the boundary was to be a line three miles north of the Merrimac all along its course. For some years, Mason, the grandson of the first proprietor, had been endeavoring to revive this claim. At the same time the heirs of Gorges were attempting to recover Maine. As neither of those claimants seemed likely to succeed, they proposed to sell their rights to the Crown. The king at first entertained this proposal, intending to make a province for his natural son, the Duke of Monmouth. Monmouth, however, found that no great profit was likely to accrue from this, and the scheme was abandoned. In 1675 Mason again revived his One Randolph was sent out by the Council for Plantations to inquire into the matter. He was a kinsman of Mason, a man of great ability, and a bitter enemy to New England. From the time that he went out, he devoted his whole energy to raking up every charge that he could find against the settlers, and putting all their conduct in the worst light possible, so as to egg on the English government against them. He sent back a report that there were many settlers in the disputed territory who wished to separate from Massachusetts. The case was brought before the English Chief Justice, who ruled that the land was not included in the Massachusetts Accordingly, the king placed the four towns on the Piscataqua under a separate government, and called the districts so formed New Hamp-It was to be governed by a President and Council nominated by the king, and a House of Deputies, from the different towns. The first governor appointed under the new system was John Cutts, a leading man in the colony, and esteemed by the inhabitants. After a year he was superseded by Edward Cranfield, who had bought Mason's right to the land. He soon embroiled himself with the inhabitants by various misdeeds. other things, he was accused of levying taxes without the consent of the Assembly, of having suits in which he was interested tried by courts that he had himself appointed, of raising the fees in the law courts so as to prevent poor men from suing, and of committing men to prison without trial. The people complained of these wrongs to the English government, and Cranfield saved himself from being turned out of his government by resigning it. The claims of Gorges' heirs were more easily settled. Massachusetts bought their rights in the land for one thousand two hundred pounds, and stepped into the place of the proprietor. Accordingly the government of Massachusetts also governed Maine, but as a separate state, not forming





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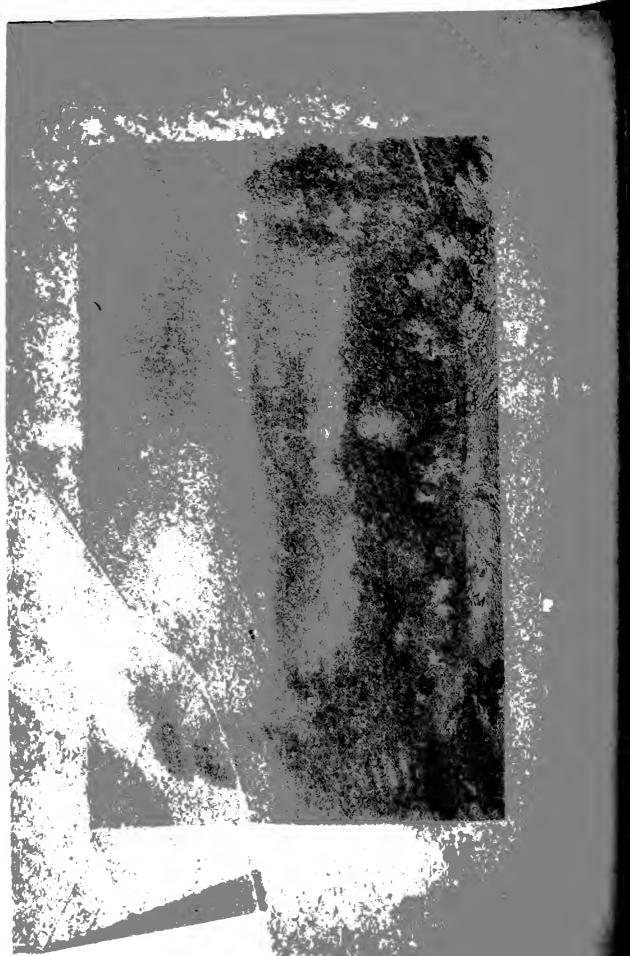
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any part of Massachusetts, and governed according to the charter originally granted to Gorges.

In 1679 the English government at last found leisure to turn its attention to Massachusetts. In July the king sent out a letter, repeating some of the demands made by him before, and in addition desiring that the colonists should surrender the province of Maine on repayment of the one thousand two hundred pounds, on the ground that they had dealt harshly with some of the settlers there. The Court of Massachusetts took no notice of this demand. To all the others they replied that they either had been, or should be, fulfilled. In 1681 the long expected blow came. A general attack was made by the king and his advisers on the charters of corporations throughout England. In some cases the privileges granted to city corporations had been used by the members as a means for setting at naught the laws. Such charters might with justice have been forfeited. But this was made a pretext for extending the attack to others, against which no such charges could be brought. The Judges of that day were so subservient to the Crown that it was useless for the corporations to resist. A charter which had been so wrested from its original purpose as that of Massachusetts, was not likely to be overlooked. The king demanded that agents should be sent from Massachusetts to explain the charges brought against the colony of neglecting to enforce the Navigation Act, and of coining money by their own authority. At the same time the settlers were privately informed that their charter would be attacked. They sent over two agents, who wrote back word that the charter was sure to be taken from them, and asked whether they should surrender it of their own accord. The Court decided to let matters take their course. About this time Cranfield maliciously persuaded the Court of Massachusetts to instruct their agents to present two thousand pounds to the king as the price of keeping the charter. This proposal gained them nothing but mockery, as Cranfield wished. In October, 1683, the agents came back, and soon after, the charter was declared null and void. The constitution under which Massachusetts had existed from its foundation was at an end.

Before the new government could be settled, Charles II. died. During the first year of James's reign no material change was made. In 1686 the king appointed a Council, with Joseph Dudley as its president, to govern Massachusetts, Maine, and New Hampshire. Dudley was the son of one of the sternest of the old Massachusetts Puritans. But he had utterly forsaken his father's ways, and cared more for the favor of the English Court than for the rights of his fellow-citizens. In 1686 the charter of Connecticut was also annulled. Rhode Island yielded up hers in 1687. The policy of James was to unite all the northern colonies under one government. Accordingly, in 1686 Sir Edmund Andros was sent out with a commission as

Governor of Massachusetts, Plymonth, New Hampshire, and Maine. At the same time he had instructions from the king to join Connecticut to Massachusetts. The commission empowered Andros and his Council to levy taxes, to make laws, and to administer justice in civil and criminal cases. These laws were to be approved of by the king, and the legal proceedings were to follow the English forms. Not a word was said of representatives, or of any political rights to be granted to the people. Eleven years before, Andros had had unfriendly dealings with New England. Being then Governor of New York, he had, by orders of the Duke of York, the proprietor of that colony, marched with a force to Saybrook, to demand that Connecticut should give up to him several strong places, as being in his dominions. The settlers prepared to resist by force, if needful, and after a fruitless interview with them Andros departed. The dispute was referred to commissioners appointed by the king, and was decided in favor of Connecticut.

In October, 1687, Andros marched into Connecticut, and demanded the charter. One of the leading settlers, Captain Wadsworth, it is said, hid it away; at all events, the Court did not give up the actual document. But this, of course, availed them nothing, and Andros declared the colony joined to Massachusetts. In 1688, to complete the king's scheme of making one state of all the northern colonies, Andros was made Governor of New York. Thus he was ruler of all the English settlements north of Delaware Bay, and was responsible to none but the king. During his governorship he was accused of many arbitrary proceedings. It was said that he would not allow persons to marry until they had given surety to him, to be forfeited if there should prove to be any impediment, and that he threatened not to suffer the people to worship in their own fashion. Even private property was not safe. Grants of land made by the former government were declared invalid. When the people complained, Andros and his followers mockingly told them that "the calf had died in the cow's belly," meaning that the destruction of the charter had overthrown all lesser rights that were connected with it. In this winter a campaign was made against the Indians, but nothing was done, owing either to the incapacity of Andros or to the slackness of men serving under a commander whom they disliked.

Whether the New England colonists would have long endured the misgovernment of Andros may be doubted. At all events, when the news of the Revolution of 1688 reached them, they were quite ready for an outbreak. Seldom has a revolution been so easy and so bloodless. The people rose with one accord, seized Andros, and turned out his officials. The other New England colonies did likewise. All the old colonial governments were restored, but only to hold their power till the English government made some definite arrangement. This was not done for four years, and during that time the old constitutions were in force. In 1691 the case of Massa-

chusetts came before the English government. The agents for the colony soon saw that it was hopeless to think of recovering their old charter, and



only applied themselves to getting as favorable a one as they could in its place. The English government proposed to unite Plymouth to Massachusetts. The Plymouth agent at first resisted this, but he soon found that there was no chance of Plymouth being allowed to remain under a separate

government, and that, if not joined to Massachusetts, it would be to New York. As his countrymen would have liked this still less, he yielded. 1692 the new charter was sent out. The one great change which it made was, that the Crown appointed the Governor, while before the people had elected him. The General Court was to consist of twenty-eight councillors and an Assembly of representatives. The councillors were to be elected every year by the General Court; the representatives by the inhabitants of the various towns. No religious qualification was required from electors as formerly, but all who had freeholds worth forty shillings a year, or other estate of forty pounds value, were admitted to vote. All laws made by the Court were to be sent home to England for approval. This, and the change in the manner of appointing the Governor, quite deprived Massachusetts of that independence which she had always hitherto claimed. In his appointment of a Governor the king showed his wish to conciliate the people. He sent out Sir William Phipps, a native of Massachusetts, of low birth, who when a lad fed sheep, and afterwards became a ship's carpenter. In that trade he heard of a Spanish ship which had sunk with treasure on board. Having raised the vessel, he brought a great sum of money to England. and was knighted by the king. James II. made him sheriff of New England, but, unlike most of James's officers there, he did his best to serve his country, and won the esteem of the New Englanders. He was a man of no great ability, but honest, benevolent, and popular. The inhabitants of Massachusetts and New Hampshire would have gladly seen the two states again joined. But though the king had joined Plymouth against its wish to Massachusetts, he chose to keep Massachusetts and New Hampshire This was ascribed to the influence of one Allen, who had bought the proprietorship of the soil in New Hampshire, and now obtained the governorship. New Hampshire had never had a charter, and none was granted to it now; but the government went on as before. The New England colonies which fared best at the Revolution were Connecticut and Rhode Island. Their charters were restored, so that they retained their old constitutions, and alone of all the colonies chose their own Governors. In 1690 and the two following years New England was engaged in a war with the French settlers in Canada and their Indian allies. But this was only part of a struggle between the French and English settlers which lasted, with one break, for more than twenty years, and it will therefore be better to tell of it in another chapter.

## CHAPTER IX.

NEW ENGLAND AFTER THE REVOLUTION.

HE charter just mentioned left some important points unsettled. It did not definitely decide whether the Acts of the English Parliament were to be in all cases binding on the colony, nor did it say whether the English Parliament had any power of taxing the colonists. The Court of Massachusetts tried to decide this latter point in their own favor. In 1692 they passed an Act declaring that no tax should be levied in the colony without the consent of the Court. To this law the English government refused its assent. If it

had passed, it would have saved many quarrels between the colonists and their governors, in which the latter were always worsted, and it might have even prevented the separation of the colonies eighty-four years later. Connecticut soon found itself in opposition to the English government. Colonel Fletcher, the Governor of New York, had a commission from the Crown giving him the command of the Connecticut militia. He did not wish to use this himself, but merely to assert his right, and then to transfer the commission to the Governor of Connecticut. The Court of Connecticut objected to this, and contended that such a commission was contrary to Fletcher entered the country to enforce his commission. their charter. Captain Wadsworth, the same man who was said to have hidden the charter, was in command of the militia. When Fletcher ordered his commission to be read, Wadsworth commanded the drums to beat, so that no one could hear the commission. Fletcher ordered them to stop, whereupon Wadsworth threatened him with violence. A mob soon assembled, and Fletcher thought it prudent to retreat. It seems strange that he should have suffered himself to be so easily baffled, yet he does not appear to have made any further attempt to enforce his orders. But though he did not succeed in appointing an officer in Connecticut, he still had the right of giving orders as commander-in-chief; and the people of Connecticut declared that he revenged himself by issuing troublesome and harassing orders,

New Hampshire soon afterwards showed a like spirit of independence. Allen, the new governor, got into a dispute with several persons, who had settled on the lands that he claimed. The New Hampshire Court decided against him. He then appealed to the king. The Colonial government refused to admit this appeal, but their refusal was overruled by the king.

In 1697 Lord Bellamont was appointed Governor of New York, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire. He was sensible, conciliatory, and popular; but, unhappily, he died in 1700, little more than a year after his arrival. During his governorship the Board of Trade, to which the management of colonial affairs had been handed over, sent out a letter warning him against the desire of the colonists for independence, and especially dwelling on their misconduct in not allowing appeals to the king. Bellamont was succeeded by Joseph Dudley, who had been governor under James H. He was soon engaged in disputes with the Assembly, in all of which he was worsted. He claimed the right of annulling the election of a councillor. Nevertheless the councillor kept his seat. In 1705 Dudley laid before the Assembly two points, on which he had special instructions from the English government. These were: 1. The establishment of two forts, one on the Piscatagua. the other at Pemaquid, a spot on the coast near Acadia: 2. The allotment by the Court of a fixed salary to the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Judges. The Assembly refused to entertain either of these proposals; the former, because the forts would be useless to the colony; the latter, because the means of the colonists varied from time to time, and because it was the right of English subjects to raise by their own votes such sums of money as might be wanted. Dudley gave way on both points. He seems to have been a time-serving man, but not without regard for his fellow-countrymen, and with nothing of the tyrant in his nature, and so to have lacked both the wish and the power to constrain the settlers. Moreover, he was suspected of various acts of dishonesty, and so perhaps felt himself in the power of the Assembly.

Before going further, it will be well to speak of some important matters which happened during the governorship of Dudley and his two predecessors. The New Englanders, like most people in those days, believed in witchcraft, and more than one person in the colony had been accused of it and put to death. The most noted case was that of an old woman, a Mrs. Hibbins, whose brother and husband had held high offices in Massachusetts, and who was hanged as a witch in 1656. In 1692 a panie seized the colony. Some children persuaded themselves that they were bewitched. The matter was taken up by one Cotton Mather, a minister. His father, Increase Mather, also a minister, was one of the ablest and boldest of those who had opposed Charles H. and James H. in their dealings with Massachusetts. The son Cotton was a vain, pushing man, with some learning, but no wisdom. Encouraged by him and another influential minister, Parris, the children accused upwards of seventy people, many of them of high station and unblemished character. The whole colony was carried away by the panic, and twenty people were put to death on utterly trumpery evidence. This madness, for such it seemed, went away as suddenly as it came. In 1692, when

fifty people were brought up for trial, all but three were acquitted, and these three were pardoned by the governor. Some of the children afterwards confessed that they had done wrong, but neither Mather nor Parris ever showed any sign of repentance. This affair seems to have done something to weaken the influence of the ministers in Massachusetts, and for the future we hear much less of them in public affairs.

The accession of William III. at once engaged the New England colonists in war with the French settlers in Canada. They had for a long while been growing into dangerous neighbors. At this time their regular settlements were confined to the peninsula of Acadia, the island of Cape Breton,



RAPIDS OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.

and the north side of the river St. Lawrence, as far as Montreal. All the land between the northern frontier of New England and the St. Lawrence, now called Maine and New Brunswick, seems to have been then uninhabited. Thus between the English and French settlements was a belt of wild forest, about two hundred miles broad, inhabited only by savages. The whole population of the French settlements at this time was less than twelve thousand, while that of New England and New York together was about one hundred thousand. The chief resource of the French settlers was the fur trade with the Indians. That which really might have been the most valuable part of their possession, Acadia, was utterly neglected, and only contained some five hundred settlers. Although it lay conveniently for the New-

foundland fisheries, and also for an attack on New England, it was bandied backwards and forwards between England and France. In 1654 Cromwell took it from the French; Charles II. restored it by the treaty of Breda to France; and, as we shall see, it changed hands three times in the next eighty years. From 1628 to 1663 the French colony was under the control of a company. Under this system the settlers fared so ill, and were so hard pressed by the Indians, that they would at one time have abandoned the country but for the energy of the Jesuit missionaries. In 1663 the company were so disheartened by the poor results that they surrendered the colony to the king. He handed it over to the French West India Company for a time, and afterwards sent out a governor, the Marquis of Tracy, who by his energy and courage drove back the hostile Indians, and saved the colony from destruction. From that time things seem to have gone on somewhat better. The settlements gradually extended westward up the St. Lawrence, and in 1671 a pillar bearing a cross and the French arms was set up at the Falls of St. Mary, between Lake Superior and Lake Huron. Unlike the New England settlers, who stood aloof from the Indians and lived together in compact settlements, the French established small outposts in the Indian country, which were at once forts, tradinghouses, and mission stations. The Jesuit missionaries were generally in charge of those stations, and braved every danger and underwent all hardships in the hope of converting the Indians. At the same time they seem to have done little towards controlling their converts, and even to have encouraged them in their raids on the English and on their Indian enemies. The French settlers, living in this way in scattered groups among the Indians, learned to suit themselves to their ways, and married among them; and thus acquired far more influence over them than the English ever did. It is even said that Count Frontenac, a French nobleman, the governor of Canada just before the invasion of New England, went among the Indians and joined in their war-dance, like one of their own chiefs. Luckily for the English, the French settlers were somewhat unfortunate in their choice of Indian allies. The natives whom they first met with were the Hurons and the Abenaquis. Both these tribes seem to have been enemies to the Mohawks, who were much the stronger race. Thus from the outset the French were on bad terms with the most powerful of all the Indian tribes.

Though there was no open hostility between the French and English settlers before 1688, there were disputes about boundaries. For, though their settlements were separated by a tract of wilderness, each nation asserted its right to lands beyond those which it actually occupied, and the French, as they spread towards the west, were accused of encroaching on the territory of New York. Each nation too suspected the other of underhand designs. One Castine, a French baron, had an outlying station at the

mouth of the Penobscot. Here he lived like a savage chief, with several Indian wives. He, it was thought, had supplied Philip with arms and ammunition during his war with New England. The French made like complaints against the inhabitants of New York. In 1687 a treaty was signed between France and England whereby it was agreed that the colonists of the two nations should keep the peace towards each other, and that neither should assist the Indians in their attacks on the other. This treaty was not likely to have much effect, as it was impossible for either side to restrain their Indian allies, and their misconduct might at any time give a pretext for war. In the same year the governor of Canada treacheronsly seized a number of Mohawk chiefs at a conference, and shipped them to France for galley slaves. The Mohawks retaliated by invading Canada. They were assisted, it is said, in this invasion by Dongan, the Governor of New York. In revenge for this the French government in 1689 sent out an expedition against New York. Frontenac, who was now appointed governor

of Canada, was in command of this. He made preparations for a great attack by land and sea. The fleet, however, was hindered by storms, and Frontenac reached Canada too late in the season to do anything by land. He found his colony suffering from an attack of the Mohawks, the fiercest they had yet made. though the French were unable to carry out their scheme against Canada this year, their allies made raids into New Hampshire and Massachusetts, and did great harm to the settlers. In this year (1689) war was declared between France and England. Accordingly in 1690 Frontenae made ready for a great invasion of the English territory. In February he sent out three parties of Indians to attack the English settlements at three different points. One attacked New York, another New Hampshire, the third Canseau, a settlement on the coast of Maine. The English did not believe that it was possible for their enemies to make their way through the forests in winter, and so were



LOOK-OUT.

utterly unprepared. All three expeditions were successful, that against New York most so. The Indians fell on Schenectady, a frontier town of some importance, utterly destroyed it, and killed and captured about a hundred of the inhabitants. In their distress, the English colonists, at the suggestion of the Massachusetts government, held a congress of the Northern colonies. New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut sent each two commissioners, who met at the city of New York. Maryland and Rhode Island did not send commissioners, but promised to assist in an expedition.

It was determined to invade Canada. Nine hundred men, of whom four hundred came from New York, were sent out under Winthrop, son of the former Governor of Connecticut, to attack Montreal by land, while a fleet, with about eighteen hundred men on board, sailed against Quebec. Unluckily the Mohawks, on whose help the English had reckoned, refused to join them in any numbers. Thus the land force was unable to carry out its plan. The fleet fared no better. It was beaten off, partly by the batteries of Quebec, partly by bad weather, and the whole expedition was a failure. Its only effect was to make bad blood between the different English settlements. Leisler, the Governor of New York, a rash, hot-headed man, was so enraged that he arrested Winthrop and other leading men from Connecticut, and would have tried them at New York by court-martial but for the remonstrance of the Connecticut government. As some set-off against this, a small English fleet under Sir William Phipps conquered Acadia. It was,



BOMB-SHELL,

however, retaken the next year. For the next five years the war consisted mainly of raids on the frontiers, in which the French Indians inflicted great suffering on the English, and the Mohawks on the French. During this period the English made a change in their mode of defence. Hitherto they had relied chiefly on regular forts along the frontier. But they found that in the woods these were of little use, as the savages, who

knew the country, had no difficulty in making their way between them. Accordingly they established instead small parties along the frontier, which moved from point to point and did far more service. In 1696 the French made great preparations for a general attack on New England by sea and land. But they found it impossible to victual their fleet for so long a voyage, and had to content themselves with conquering Newfoundland. In the next year the French Indians penetrated farther into the English territory than they had yet done and attacked Andover, a village only twentyfive miles from Boston. In 1697 the peace of Ryswick put an end to the By this peace no definite settlement was made as to the boundaries between the French and English settlements. For five years, between this peace and the declaration of war in the reign of Queen Anne, the colonies were at peace. During this time the French sought to establish an alliance with the Mohawks. In 1701 a treaty was made at Montreal by the French and three of the chief Canadian tribes, the Hurons, the Abenaquis, and the Ottawas, with the five Mohawk nations. The French, however, were too poor, and had too little trade, for their friendship to be much valued by the Mohawks. Moreover, the French could not make their own allies keep the treaty. Thus the Mohawks, except a few outlying villages, returned to their alliance with the English. At the same time they were much less zealous and serviceable allies than the French Indians. The latter really valued their French allies and fought for them zealously, while the Mohawks only cared for the English as a useful check upon the French. Their policy was to have as little as possible to do with either nation, and to befriend those who were least likely to interfere with them, or to trespass on their country. Indeed, the English had so little faith in the Mohawks that, a few years later, when an English force in Canada suffered greatly from sickness, they believed that their Indian allies had poisoned the wells. In 1702 war

again broke out. By land the operations were much what they had been in the previous war. Parties of savages from either side made raids across the frontier, destroying villages and carrying off prisoners. The brunt of this war fell especially on New Hampshire and Massachusetts; while New York, whose frontiers were covered by the Mohawk country, for the most part escaped. The English during this war made three attempts to recover Acadia. In 1704 a force of five hundred and fifty men was sent out in a fleet of whale-boats for this

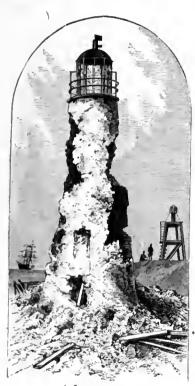


A CANNON TRUCK

purpose, but did absolutely nothing. Three years later the attempt was renewed, and again failed. In both of these expeditions there seems to have been a general and well-founded feeling of dissatisfaction with the leaders. Indeed, it is said that, after the second, the chief officers would have been tried by court martial, but that so many were accused that there were not enough left to sit in judgment. It was thought too that many of the New Englanders secretly favored the Acadians for the sake of trading with them. Dudley himself was suspected of this, and in 1706 six leading men were prosecuted on this charge before the Court of Massachusetts and fined various sums, from eleven hundred to sixty pounds. Their sentence, however, was annulled by the Crown. In 1710 a more successful attempt was made. A force of more than three thousand men attacked Port Royal, the chief fort in Acadia. Subercas, the French commander, had only three hundred men. Moreover, he felt ill-used at the feeble support given him by the French government, and had no heart for a stout resistance, and so The English, in honor of the queen, changed the name of the place to Annapolis.

In the next year a great expedition was planned against Canada, A fleet of fifteen men-of-war was sent from England with five thousand soldiers. These were to be joined by two regiments of New England militia, making

the whole force up to nearly seven thousand. This army was considered fully strong enough to take Quebec. In June the Massachusetts government received orders to provide pilots and a supply of provisions for the fleet. Sixteen days later the fleet itself arrived. Considerable delay and difficulty occurred in finding supplies. The blame of this was laid by the English commander on the sloth, stinginess, and disloyalty of the New Englanders, while they, on the other hand, declared that they had done all they could, but that unfairly short notice had been given them. This probably was true. It is even said that the people of Boston were so far from being backward in the matter that many families lived wholly on salt food in



A LIGHTHOUSE.

order that the troops might be properly supplied. Nevertheless, the complaints found their way to England and did as much harm as if they had been true. The expedition itself was an utter failure. The fleet ran on the rocks near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and eight or nine ships and more than a thousand men were lost. The commanders, disheartened by this, and despairing of getting up the river, returned home. The blame of the failure was laid by some on the admiral, Sir Hoveden Walker, by others on the Boston pilots. After its return the admiral's ship blew up at Spithead, and his papers, which might have helped to clear up the affair, were lost. One advantage had ensued from this expedition. It had withheld the French from an attempt to recover Annapolis, and as the English garrison there was weak, such an attempt would probably have succeeded. In 1713 peace was signed at Utrecht. This peace gave Acadia to England, but it did not determine what the

north-east boundary of Acadia should be; consequently the unoccupied country between the Kennebec and the St. Lawrence was still left to be a future source of dispute. In one way this war did a great deal to bring the colonies into discredit with the mother country. The frontier warfare, in which the colonists showed great courage and defended their country successfully, was scarcely heard of by the English. It was not marked by any brilliant exploits, and thus little or nothing was known of it in England. But the regular attacks on the French coast all came under the notice of the English government, and the colonists were blamed, not only for their own

shortcomings, but for the failures of the English commanders. Thus they got an ill name in England for slackness and disloyalty, and even cowardice, which their general conduct throughout the war in no way deserved.

The peace of Utrecht did not end the war with the Indians. The settlers on the frontier suffered so much that, about this time, the New Hampshire government offered a reward of one hundred pounds for an Indian prisoner, or the scalp of an Indian. One French settlement was specially obnoxious to the English. This was an outpost called Norridgewock, about. three days' march from the northern frontier of Massachusetts. This was managed by Sebastian Rallé, a Jesuit, one of the bravest and most successful of the French missionaries. He built a chapel there, and got together a congregation of sixty Indians, whom he regularly trained to take part in the services of the Church. He does not, however, seem to have attempted to restrain their feroeity against the English, but rather to have inflamed it, and was said to have even abetted their cruelties with his own hands. In 1722 a party from New England destroyed the settlement. Rallé fled, leaving his goods and papers in their hands. Next year another attack was made, in which he was killed. In 1725 the Court of Massachusetts proposed that commissioners should be sent from the five English colonies north of the Hudson to remonstrate with the governor of Canada on his conduct in aiding the Indians. New Hampshire alone consented. A deputation was sent to Canada, and at the same time the English began to treat with the The French governor, the Marquis of Vaudreuil, said that the Indians merely fought in defence of their own lands, and not in obedience to him. The English then produced letters found at Norridgewock, which proved the contrary. They also brought forward an Indian whom the governor had furnished with arms and ammunition to be used against the Eng-The governor tried to make excuses, but the deputies stood their ground, and their firmness withheld him from any attempt to break off the negotiations between the English and the Indians. In 1725 peace was made The English promised to abolish all private trade, and to establish trading-houses under the control of the Massachusetts government, where the Indians would be supplied better and more cheaply than by private traders. Thus, after more than thirty years of war, the New England frontier enjoyed a long term of peace. This long struggle had a great effect in accustoming the New Englanders to all the shifts and dangers of war in a savage country. Every one on the New England frontiers had to be perforce a soldier. It would be endless to tell all the feats of daring performed by the settlers. Even the women learned to use weapons and face dangers and accomplish exploits, which would have shown no little courage, even if done by men. One woman, Hannah Dustin, was carried off by the Indians with a young lad. In the night, while the Indians slept, the prisoners rose.

killed and scalped the whole party, save two, and made their way back to the English settlement. One village was attacked while all the men were away. The women dressed themselves in men's coats and hats, lest the weakness of the place should be known, and kept up so hot a fire that the Indians retreated. One undoubtedly evil effect was produced by these wars. Just as in the case of Philip's war, the colonists became so infuriated against the Indians that they scarcely distinguished between friend and foe. Thus, in New Hampshire, it was for many years impossible to get any jury to convict an Englishman for the murder of an Indian.

For some years after the Revolution, the New England charters seemed to be in danger. In 1701 a bill was brought forward in Parliament for withdrawing them. This, however, fell through. Three years later, the proposal was renewed. Connecticut, having the most liberal charter, was naturally the most alarmed. The other colonies seem to have taken the matter more quietly, and the Connecticut charter was made the chief subject of contest. Dudley, the Governor of Massachusetts, and Lord Cornbury. the Governor of New York, were its chief opponents. Dudley was a personal enemy to many of the chief men in Connecticut, and Lord Cornbury had been refused four hundred and fifty pounds which he had demanded from Connecticut for the defence of his own colony. The government of Connecticut was accused of harboring pirates and other criminals; of setting at naught the laws of England and disobeying the queen's officers; of refusing to contribute to the defence of New England, and of robbing some Indians of their land. Luckily for the colony, Sir Henry Ashurst, its agent in England, was a man of great energy. By his representations and those of the counsel whom he employed, Connecticut was cleared of all the charges brought against it. Ten years later the charters were again threatened. They were defended by Jeremiah Dummer, a leading citizen of Massachusetts, a man of moderate views, who was afterwards Lieutenant-Governor. He represented that the loss of the charters and the consequent danger of arbitrary government would be a great blow to the welfare of the colonies; that anything which weakened the colonies would also affect the West Indies, which obtained many of their supplies thence, and so would injure the mother country. He laughed at the idea of some who fancied that the colonists were aiming at independence, and said that it would be as reasonable to set two of the king's beef-eaters to keep a baby from getting out of its cradle and doing mischief as to guard against a rebellion in America. arguments prevailed, and the attack on the charters was abandoned.

In 1715, Dudley was succeeded in the governorship of Massachusetts by Colonel Shute. During his term of office and that of the two next Governors, the history of Massachusetts is one long series of contests between the Governor and the Assembly. The chief subject of these disputes was

the steadfast refusal of the Assembly to grant the Governor a fixed salary. They insisted on voting him such a sum as they thought fit from year to year, and so making him dependent on them. There were besides smaller subjects of difference which helped to embitter matters. The contest about the salary had, as we have seen, begun in the time of Dudley. He failed to carry his point. For the first four years of Shute's government things went on quietly. In 1720 he claimed the right of rejecting a Speaker chosen by the Assembly. They resisted, but at length so far gave way as . to elect another Speaker. At the same time they reduced the Governor's half-yearly salary from six hundred to five hundred pounds. Shute passed over this without notice, but, when it was repeated, he told them that he had orders from the Crown to obtain a fixed salary. The Assembly asked leave to postpone the question, and the Governor granted this. The next year the Assembly refused to vote any salaries till they knew whether the Governor had given his consent to the Acts which they had passed. When they had done their business they asked leave to rise, but the Governor refused to allow this. They then rose without leave. The Council voted this an irregular proceeding. When they next met, they got into a high dispute. The small-pox broke out at Boston, and it was unsafe for the Assembly to meet there. Accordingly they decided to meet elsewhere. The Governor considered this an encroachment on his rights. He did not wish to force them to sit in Boston, but he objected to the matter being taken out of his hands. Soon after this he produced letters from the English government, approving of his conduct about the election of a Speaker. The Assembly still asserted its right, and there the matter rested. In 1728, Shute was succeeded by William Burnet, whose father, Gilbert Burnet, Bishop of Salisbury, had been a well-known writer and a leading supporter of William III. The new Governor was received with great pomp and every expression of good-will. Nevertheless, the representatives were as firm as before in the matter of the salary. To show that this was not done out of any personal ill-will to Burnet, they voted him a grant of seventeen hundred pounds. This he refused, and insisted on a fixed salary. The Council tried to take a middle course, and proposed that a fixed salary should be granted, but for a limited time. The Assembly, however, refused even this concession. In their own defence they drew up a paper setting forth their reasons. The principal of these were, that it was "the undoubted right of all Englishmen by Magna Charta to raise and dispose of money for the public service of their own free accord without compulsion," and that it might "be deemed a betraying of the rights and privileges granted in the charter." Burnet answered that to admit the claims of the Assembly would throw the whole government into their hands. Moreover, he said that it had never been considered unsafe in England to give the

king an income for life. To this the Assembly answered that there was a great difference between the king, who had a permanent interest in the welfare of his subjects, and a governor, who only came for a time. They pleaded, too, that it was impossible for them to usurp the whole government of the colony so long as the Governor and Council had each power to refuse their consent to laws. About this time the Assembly of Barbadoes was engaged in a like contest with the Governor there, and their example possibly served to encourage the people of Massachusetts. Things now came to a dead-lock. The Governor refused to dissolve the Assembly, and they were obliged to sit on, greatly to their inconvenience, while he would not take any money granted, since it did not come in the form of a fixed salary. The Assembly now resolved to lay their case before the English government, and sent over two agents. The question was then brought before the Privy Council, which strongly supported Burnet, and advised that Parliament should attend to the matter. This, however, does not seem to have been done, or if it was, nothing came of it. In 1729 Burnet died. In spite of these disputes, the colonists liked and esteemed him, and the Assembly ordered a very honorable funeral at the public charge. His successor. Belcher, had been one of the two agents sent over by the Assembly to plead their cause in England. The English government probably thought that his appointment would conciliate the colonists. At first it seemed likely to do so, and he was received with great joy. But it soon became clear that the old strife was to be renewed. The Assembly, as before, refused to vote a fixed salary. It was not easy for Belcher to fight successfully for a cause which he had once opposed. Moreover, he weakened his own position by his unfair conduct in some appointments to offices. In the next year Belcher gave way, and asked the English government to allow him to accept the money granted him by the Assembly. Hitherto the Crown had ordered the Governor to get a fixed salary or take nothing. This was now so far relaxed that Belcher was allowed to take the grant, although he was ordered still to demand the salary. By this concession the English government acknowledged itself defeated, and in a few years afterwards it yielded altogether. Thus the Assembly earried the point for which they had been struggling for twenty-six years. Throughout these contests with the different governors, Boston was always the chief stronghold of the colonial party. The influence of that party, therefore, was somewhat weakened by a law passed in 1694 that no man should represent any town in which he did not dwell. Thus the outlying towns which might otherwise have chosen eminent men from Boston, were obliged to put up with inferior men of their own, and only two of the leaders of the party at Boston could find seats in the Assembly. But, though in one way this weakened the influence of the Assembly, it must have made it more attentive to the wants of the smaller

towns, and kept Boston from gaining an undue share of power, which it might otherwise have done.

Belcher's dismissal from the governorship was brought about by means in nowise creditable to his enemies. Letters containing various charges against him were sent to England; some of these were anonymous, others were forged in the names of leading men in Massachusetts. The charges were at length cleared up, but they did Belcher no little harm with the English government. His final dismissal, if the story of it be true, as it probably is, was disgraceful to all concerned. The ministry in England were very anxious that a certain member, Lord Euston, should be elected for Coventry. The dissenters were very strong in that town. One of the Massachusetts agents promised the prime minister, the Duke of Grafton, that he would secure Lord Euston's return on condition that Belcher was This offer was accepted. The agent then told the Coventry dissenters that, if they secured Lord Euston's election, Belcher, who was trying to get the Church of England established in Massachusetts, and who was hostile to the Nonconformists, should be dismissed. The agreement was carried out on both sides.

Under Belcher's successor, Shirley, war again broke out with the French

in Canada. War was not declared between England and France in Europe, but English troops were fighting against the French, the former for the Queen of Hungary, the latter for the Elector of Bavaria. Thus war might at any moment break out between the colonists. In 1744 the French governor of Cape Breton took Canseau, and threatened Annapolis, which was only saved by a reinforcement from Massachusetts. Some of the English prisoners from Canseau were sent to Louisburg, the



A FORT.

chief fort of Cape Breton. When they were restored and returned to Massachusetts they told Shirley of certain weaknesses in the fortification of Louisburg, which would, they thought, lay it open to a surprise. The place would be of great value to England, as it commanded Acadia, the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and Newfoundland. Shirley therefore made the bold proposal to the Assembly of attacking Louisburg in the winter, without waiting for help from England. The Assembly at first was utterly against it, but the matter got abroad, and the project became very popular. It was again brought before the Assembly, which decided, though only by a majority of

one vote, to attack the place. Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, all joined in the expedition. The other colonies declined to assist. A force of about four thousand five hundred men was sent out in eight small vessels. On their way they were reinforced by four English ships. The French were quite unprepared, and allowed the enemy to land unopposed. The New Englanders had had no experience of any regular war since the peace of Utrecht, and were quite ignorant of scientific warfare. Thus they suffered losses in the siege which might easily have been avoided. The siege began in the last week of April. On the 18th of May a French ship, well supplied with stores, and with five hundred men on board, was taken by the English fleet on its way to relieve the garrison. A few days later the fleet was strengthened by the arrival of two more ships from England. On the 17th of June the French, believing that a general attack was about to be made, surrendered the place. This success was a great triumph for the colonists. A force taken entirely from New England, under officers who had never seen service before, had performed a feat of which any army might have been proud. Besides capturing Louisburg, they probably saved their own country from invasion. A French fleet of seven ships was on its way to attack New England, when they heard of the capture of Louisburg, and gave over the attempt. Next year the French sent a fleet of about fifty sail, among them fourteen ships of the line, with three thousand soldiers on board, to attack the English colonies. At this time England was far too much taken up with its own troubles and the Jacobite insurrection to do much for the help of its colonies. Had it not been for a series of mishaps which befell the French fleet, New England could hardly have escaped. But the ships met with storms, the chief officers fell sick and died, and the fleet sailed back to France without striking a blow. In 1748 the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle put an end to the war. To the great disappointment of the New Englanders, Louisburg was restored to the French. This war had no good effect on the relations between the colonists and the mother country. The former felt that their services had been held cheap, and that the English government had left them unprotected. Each country, in fact, was too busy with its own affairs to pay much attention to the other, or to understand its difficulties. Such inconveniences must always be when two distant countries are under one government.

During all this time no important political events took place in Rhode Island or Connecticut. This quiet was probably due to their being left with the appointment of their own governor. Thus they had no cause for discontent; and, moreover, they felt that anything like disorder might endanger their charters. In New Hampshire disputes between Mason's successors and the settlers on the land which they claimed was decided in the colonial courts by a verdiet in favor of the latter. The defeated side

appealed to the English government, but ineffectually; and this matter, which had disturbed the colony for forty years, was at last at an end. During the time that the contest between the Governor and the Assembly had been raging in Massachusetts, New Hampshire obtained the favor of the English government by granting the governor a fixed salary. In 1727 an Act was passed that assemblies should be elected every three years. All voters were to have an estate of forty pounds value. This Act was confirmed by the English government, and henceforth served as a declaration of the constitution of New Hampshire.



A SCENE IN MARYLAND

## CHAPTER X.

MARYLAND.

LL the colonies that we have considered hitherto, with one exception, were founded either by companies or by parties of settlers, and were under governors chosen by themselves, or appointed by the Crown. But, as we have seen in the case of Maine, there was another kind of colony, called proprietary. The first of these was Maryland, founded in 1632 by Lord Baltimore. His father, George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, was a convert to the Roman Catholic Church,

and an adherent and personal friend of James I. and afterwards of Charles I. Thus he easily obtained a grant of land for a colony. His first attempt was in

Newfoundland. A settlement had already been formed there by some Bristol men in 1610. No success followed Lord Baltimore's attempt. mate was severe, his health failed, and he was annoyed on account of his religion by the neighboring colonists, who seem to have been Puritans. In 1629 he left Newfoundland and went to Virginia; but the Virginians, who were strong Protestants, gave him an unfriendly reception, and he left the colony. He then applied for a grant of land to the south of James River, within the bounds of Virginia. This, however, was resisted by some leading Virginians, and the scheme was given up. Finally he obtained a grant of land to the north of the River Potomac, to the north of Virginia, taking in a large portion of the soil included by the Virginia charter. This charter had been annulled, and it might be held that the right over the soil returned to the king. At the same time it would have been evidently unjust to grant away any land again which settlers had occupied trusting to the original Virginia charter. There was, however, no such injustice in granting lands which had been included by that charter, provided that the settlers had not vet occupied them, and Baltimore's grant was strictly limited to unoccupied lands. The country was to be called Maryland, in honor of the Queen Henrietta Maria. The charter granted to Baltimore made him almost an independent sovereign. With the assistance of the freemen of the colony he could make laws, which were to be as far as possible in accordance with the laws of England, but did not require to be confirmed by the king. He had also power to appoint judges and public officers, and to pardon criminals. One very important concession was made; no tax was to be levied by the English Crown. This charter merely fixed the relations between the Crown and the proprietor; it did not settle anything as to those between the proprietor and the settlers, beyond ordering that they should be called together to make laws. Everything beyond this was left to be arranged between Baltimore and the colonists.

Before the charter was finally executed, Baltimore died. The grant, however, was continued to his son and successor, Cecilius Calvert. In 1632 he sent out about two hundred settlers, under his brother, Leonard Calvert. Though Baltimore himself was a Roman Catholic, he does not seem to have had any idea of confining his settlement to that religion, and many of those who sailed were Protestants. Early in 1634 the settlers landed at the mouth of the Potomac. By good luck they lighted on an Indian town, from which a large number of the inhabitants had just fled for fear of a neighboring tribe. Those who remained received the settlers hospitably, accepted some presents, and granted the English the empty part of the town. Unhappily the colonists had other and less friendly neighbors to deal with. A Virginian, one Clayborne, had established a station at a place called the Isle of Kent, in Chesapeake Bay, for trade with the Indians.

The territory came within the bounds of Baltimore's grant, and Governor Calvert considered that he was not bound to regard such a settlement as inhabited land, and consequently that he had a right to occupy it. Clayborne resisted his attempt to take possession of it, and a fight followed, in



which one Marylander and three Virginians were killed. The question was referred to the Privy Council, but no definite decision was given, and the matter was left to become a source of dispute in future times.

The colony soon throve and increased. During the first two years, Baltimore, it is said, spent forty thousand pounds on the exportation of

emigrants, and in supplying the colony with necessaries. Notwithstanding this he had some difficulties with the settlers. The charter, as we have seen, did not fix the relations between them; and Baltimore himself does not seem to have drawn up any constitution for the colony. The nearest approach to this was the commission by which he appointed Leonard Calvert governor. This gave him power to call assemblies, to confirm or annul the laws passed by them, to make grants of land, and to sit as judge in criminal and civil cases. But the exact division of power between the Governor and the Assembly was not settled, and consequently for some time there was great danger of each asserting claims which the other would not admit. This evil, too, was increased by the fact of the proprietor being of a different religion from many of the settlers. This, however, was less important than it might have been, inasmuch as Lord Baltimore never seems to have made the slightest attempt to press Romanism on the colonists, or indeed to have troubled himself in any way about their religious condition. As in Massachusetts, the Assembly was at first a primary one, and consisted of the whole body of freemen. In the same way too the inconvenience of the system was soon felt, and a Representative Assembly was substituted. The process of change, however, was not exactly the same. In Massachusetts, as we have seen, a Representative Assembly grew up side by side with the original assembly of all the freemen, and finally ousted it; but in Maryland the primary assembly gradually changed into a representative one. At first many of the settlers found it inconvenient to attend, and sent proxies, that is, gave their neighbors power to vote for them. From this it was an easy step to allow each county to send two proxies or representatives. But for some time the two systems were mixed up, and those who were dissatisfied with the result of the election were allowed to attend the Assembly themselves. After the representative system was definitely established, the proprietor exercised the right of summoning any persons he pleased to the Assembly, to sit with the representatives. This right, if freely used, would have thrown the whole power into the hands of the proprietor, since he could fill the Assembly with his nominees. As, however, in about ten or twelve years the Assembly was divided, as in Virginia, into two Houses-the lower formed of the representatives, and the upper of the councillors and the proprietor's nominees—this power was of no great importance, nor does it seem to have been largely exercised. The want of a fixed constitution was soon felt. It was ordered by the charter that the proprietor and the freemen should make laws; but nothing was said as to the way in which this power was to be divided, and what was to be done in case of a difference of opinion. In a long-established government, such as that of England, the absence of written regulations on a point of this sort matters but little, as some settled usage is sure

to have grown up which is fully as binding as any law; but in a new country the want of a fixed regulation could not fail to be felt. This soon happened. The Governor, acting for the proprietor, and the Assembly, each proposed laws, and in each case the laws proposed by the one were refused by the other. At last it was settled by a compromise, in which the proprietor made the chief concessions. These disputes did not interfere with the good feeling which existed between Baltimore and the settlers. This is shown by the fact that the Assembly voluntarily granted the proprietor a subsidy, to be raised by a poll-tax, to repay him in some degree for all that he had spent on the colony. By this act of courtesy and goodwill to Baltimore, the Assembly also asserted that the right of levying taxes belonged to them rather than to the proprietor, a point on which the charter said nothing.

We see that there were three subjects out of which difficulties might arise: Clayborne's claim to the Isle of Kent, the limits of the power of the Assembly, and the difference of religion between the proprietor and the settlers. For this was an age in which difference of religion was almost sure to lead to active hostility, since there was scarcely a single sect which was content to be merely tolerated, but each sought to force others to join it, and none more so than the Puritan party, to which many of the influential Marylanders belonged. The outbreak of the civil war in England was the signal for all these causes of quarrel to come into action. Clayborne thought that he was likely to get that redress from the Parliament which was refused him by the king, and the settlers who opposed Baltimore in religion and politics naturally seized the opportunity given them by the success of their friends at home. Accordingly, soon after the outbreak of the civil war in England, disturbance in Maryland began. In 1645 one Richard Ingle, being suspected of treasonable practices, was arrested, but escaped before he could be brought to trial. Soon after, he was sent out by Parliament in a ship with letters of marque to cruise on the American coast. Although his commission does not seem to have entitled him to meddle with Maryland, he landed there, and headed an insurrection against the Governor. Great disorders ensued, and those who remained loval to the proprietor were cruelly plundered. But the insurgents did not succeed in overthrowing the established government, and Parliament does not appear to have approved of their proceedings. When the Parliament got the upper hand in England, Baltimore felt that it was advisable to conciliate that party. Although a Roman Catholie and a friend of the king, he does not seem to have been zealous in either cause. His policy throughout was that of a man whose chief aim was to keep his proprietorship and the advautages which it brought him, at the same time interfering as little as possible with the wishes of the settlers. As early as 1641 a complaint had

been made in Parliament that Maryland was practically an independent State, likely to strengthen Romanism and to injure the Protestant cause. In consequence of this, Baltimore had written to the Jesuit priests settled in Maryland, warning them that he could not protect them against the laws of England, or grant them any special immunity. In the same spirit, at the death of his brother in 1648, he appointed as governor William Stone, a Protestant, and believed to be well affected to the Parliament. At the same time, with a view to protecting his fellow-religionists, he compelled Stone to take an oath not to molest Romanists, or to keep them out of office.

For the next two years the relations between the different parties in the colony, and between the proprietor and the Assembly, seem to have been friendly. An Act was passed granting full toleration to all religions. the same time blasphemy, Sabbath-breaking by games and the like, and the use of abusive names for any sect, were strictly forbidden. be looked upon as a sort of compromise between the two parties. Roman Catholics, who were the weaker body, would ask for toleration, but the prohibition of Sunday games is quite sure to have come from the Puritans. Another Act was passed by which the right of levying taxes was definitely granted to the Assembly. About this time the Puritan party was reinforced by a number of emigrants from Virginia. It is possible that they had found their way in gradually, but in 1649 they first appear as forming a separate settlement, called Providence. In the next year they returned a member to the Assembly. But though the Puritan party was thus strengthened, the Assembly allowed Baltimore to impose an oath of allegiance on all the settlers, a measure which they had refused to pass a year before. In the next year the commissioners sent out by Parliament to subdue the colonies in Chesapeake Bay, after they had reduced Virginia, proceeded to Maryland. They demanded that the colonists should promise to be faithful to the Commonwealth, and that the name of "the keepers of the liberties of England" should be substituted for that of "the proprietor" in all legal documents. The first condition was readily accepted; but Stone demurred to the second, considering it an infringement of the proprietor's rights. Accordingly he was deposed. The commissioners, however, finding that he was popular with the colonists, and not ill-affected to the Parliament, came to terms with him by some concession on each side, and he was restored as governor. For the next two years things went on smoothly. But in 1654 Baltimore sent out instructions to Stone to demand an oath of fidelity to the proprietor from all the colonists; all who refused were to be banished. This was considered, not unfairly, a violation of the terms on which Stone had submitted. The Puritan party rose; the commissioners, Bennett and Clayborne, were recalled from Virginia; and Stone was again deposed. Stone resisted; he raised a small force, and for a while seemed in

a fair way to be master of the colony. But the Puritans also took up arms, and an engagement followed in which Stone was defeated, and fifty of his followers killed. By this victory the colony came for a while under the power of the Puritans.

In the meantime Clayborne and his party had seized the opportunity given them by the ascendency of Parliament to renew their claims to the



SKIRMISH WITH THE PURITANS.

land included in Baltimore's patent, but which they professed to have occupied. The matter was referred to the Commissioners for Plantations, but their consideration of it was repeatedly postponed, and there is no trace to be found of any decision having been given. At the same time the English government was engaged in considering the validity of Lord Baltimore's proprietary rights. The question was referred to a body called the Commissioners for Trade. Baltimore had already endeavored to ingratiate himself with the ruling party, by representing that Maryland was the only

colony, besides those of New England, that had readily submitted to the Parliament, and that it would be both unfair and unjust to join it to a royalist colony like Virginia. While the case was still before the commissioners, Baltimore seems to have made an attempt to recover his authority by granting a commission as Governor to one Fendal, an unprincipled and Fendal, however, was at once arrested by the Parliaintrioning man. mentary leaders, fortunately perhaps for Lord Baltimore, since he had not time, by any act of violence, to bring the cause of the proprietor into discredit. In 1656 the Commissioners for Trade reported in favor of the restoration of the proprietor. This recommendation required to be adopted by the government before it could take effect. Nevertheless, Baltimore, without waiting for this, sent out his brother, Philip Calvert, with instructions to establish Fendal as Governor. Thus there were in the colony two governments, each claiming legitimate power. In the next year Bennett and Matthews, the Parliamentary leaders, finding that Baltimore was sure to be restored, came to terms with him. They handed over the government to him, on the condition that all offences committed since the disturbances began should be tried, not by the proprietor, but by the English government; that none should forfeit their land for the part they had taken; and that all of the Puritan party who wished to leave the country should have a year in which to do so. On these conditions Baltimore was restored. Though the English government does not seem to have given any final decision in his favor, yet it seems to have accepted the report of the commissioners, and no attempt was made to interfere with the authority of the proprietor.

In 1662 Lord Baltimore sent over his son, Charles Calvert, as Governor. . Under him the colony soon recovered from the effect of its late troubles. By 1675 it contained sixteen thousand inhabitants. In 1676 Charles Calvert succeeded to his father's title and proprietorship. In 1681 he passed a law limiting the right of voting to those who had freeholds of fifty acres, or other property of forty pounds value. Perhaps in consequence of this, an insurrection broke out, headed by Fendal. This was subdued before serious mischief could follow. Under James II. the proprietor's charter was threatened, and would probably have been taken away but for the Revolu-After the Revolution the proprietor, being a Roman Catholic, was deprived of all political rights in the colony, though he was allowed to keep his proprietary rights over the soil. His successor turned Protestant in 1715, and was restored to his full rights as proprietor. After the Revolution several harsh measures were passed against the Roman Catholics. Besides the laws in force in England against the public celebration of the Roman Catholic religion, which were held to apply to the colony, an Act was passed by the Assembly imposing a duty on all Irish servants imported, with the view of preventing the introduction of Roman Catholics. This seemed especially harsh in a colony which had been founded by a Roman Catholic, and where, under his government, all sects had enjoyed equal freedom. In 1704 these restrictions were so far lessened that Roman Catholic priests were allowed to celebrate worship in private houses. In their industry, commerce, and mode of life the Marylanders resembled their neighbors in Virginia. In one respect they were more fortunate. Though they did not altogether avoid quarrels with the Indians, yet there were no serious wars. While the records of Virginia are filled with discussions and resolutions concerning the defence of the colony against the savages, we find very little of this in the history of Maryland. The Susquehannas, the tribe with whom the Virginians were engaged in one of their most serious wars, were the chief enemies of Maryland. Their attacks were mostly confined to the frontiers, and they do not seem ever to have endangered the interior of the colony. As in Virginia, Acts were passed protecting the Indians from being enslaved or otherwise ill-treated by the planters. So greatly was the authority of the English respected by the Indians in Maryland, that in 1663 a chief who was placed at the head of a league of tribes thought it well to get the formal consent of the English Governor to his election.



## CHAPTER XI.

NEW YORK.

S we have seen, Virginia and Maryland were separated from New England by the Dutch colony of New Netherlands. As that colony became an English possession, and afterwards one of the United States, it is needful that we should know something of its early history. It was, like Virginia, under the government of a corporation, the Dutch West India Company. The whole management of the colony was entrusted to this company, and the Dutch government only

kept the right of annulling the appointment of colonial officers. The company was also bound to inform the government from time to time as to the state of the colony. Unlike the English settlements, New Netherlands depended more on trade than agriculture. One result of this was that, for convenience in dealing with the Indians, the settlers spread inland along the Hudson, and not along the coast. Thus, while New Netherlands nominally reached from the mouth of the Hudson to that of the Delaware, the whole

coast between these two rivers was left unoccupied. Besides the settlements along the Hudson, there were several in the southern part of Long Island, which lies opposite the coast between the Hudson and the Connecticut. The company itself did little in the way of sending out emigrants, but left that to a class of landed proprietors called patroons. These patroons held estates under the company, which they settled with emigrants whom they fitted out and sent over. They might purchase estates of unlimited extent on the one condition of sending out fifty settlers. They might found townships, and appoint officers and magistrates for them. Within their own boundaries they tried all cases, and had power of life and death. By the laws the settlers were allowed to appeal to the company, but this right was practically of little value, as the patroons generally made the emigrants agree to give up this right before they went out. Thus the colony consisted of a number of small separate States, each governed by a single man.

In 1640 another class of settlers was admitted. Every one who went out accompanied by five other emigrants was allowed two hundred acres of land, and was to be independent of the patroons. This provided the colony with a class of yeomen much like those of the New England colonies. tem of patroons does not seem to have answered, and, before the colony passed into the hands of the English, they seem to have died out. as it lasted the system gave rise to much difficulty and many disputes. The patroons had disputes with the company as to the limits of their power, and with private traders as to their right of trading in any patroon's country without a license from him. Partly owing to these disputes, and partly to the folly of Kieft, the governor, who involved the colony in a needless war with the Indians, for the first twenty years New Netherlands did not pros-When Stuyvesant came out in 1647, he only found three hundred men able to bear arms. Under his government things improved. By 1664 the population had increased to ten thousand; the chief place, New Amsterdam, had become a flourishing town, with fifteen hundred inhabitants. tlers were not all Dutch. Like Holland itself, New Netherlands was the chosen refuge of men persecuted in their own countries for their religion. Besides the Dutch there were Puritans from England, French Huguenots from Rochelle, Waldenses and Walloons. The Waldenses were Protestants from the south-east of France and from Piedmont, who had suffered severe persecutions, chiefly from the Dukes of Savoy. The Walloons were Roman Catholics from the Netherlands. They and the Huguenots were so numerous that public documents were sometimes written in French as well as in Dutch. There were, too, some Swedish settlers on the Delaware. later time, it was said that eighteen different languages were spoken in the colony.

The people of New Netherlands did not enjoy anything like the same

political freedom as their English neighbors. They did not make their own laws or fix their own taxes; yet they were not altogether without means of making their wants known, and protecting themselves against arbitrary government. In 1641 Kieft called together a Board of twelve Deputies, elected by the people, to advise him about the war with the Indians. They had no power beyond this. In the next year some of them of their own accord drew up a paper calling the Governor's attention to certain grievances from which the colonists suffered. The chief of these was that the Council, which ought to have been a check upon the Governor, consisted of one member only; and as the Governor had two votes, the whole power was in his hands. They proposed that the people should elect four members of the Council. Kieft promised to allow this, and dissolved the Board, but did not keep his prom-In 1644 he called together a similar Board to consult about taxation. Kieft wanted to lay a duty on certain articles. The Deputies opposed this, declaring that the inhabitants could not pay it, and, moreover, that they ought to be taxed only by the company itself, and not by the Governor. After a dispute, Kieft imposed the tax, but had in some cases to use force in making the colonists pay it. In the same year the Deputies sent a memorial to the company. They represented the wretched state to which Kieft had brought the colony by his folly in making war on the Indians. They advised the company to believe nothing that Kieft told them, and they petitioned for a new Governor and a regular system of representation. The company thereupon recalled Kieft. His successor, Stuyvesant, established an imperfect system of representation. The people were to elect eighteen Councillors, of whom he was to choose nine. Of these, six were to go out of office each year, but before they went out the whole nine were to choose the six incoming members. Thus after the first election the people had no voice in the matter. In 1647 the Councillors sent a memorial to the States-General, setting forth the wants and sufferings of the colony. government took up the matter, passed a resolution recommending certain improvements, and sent it to the West India Company. The amendment in the condition of the colony was to some extent due to this. In 1653 a dispute arose between Stuyvesant and the people of New Amsterdam about the tax on liquors, in which Stuyvesant at last gave way.

Besides these disputes, the colony was exposed to dangers from without. The Dutch settlers, unlike the English, had constant dealings with the Indians, and those dealings often led to quarrels. In 1643 some trifling misconduct on the part of the Indians was made the pretext for an attack. The country of the Indians was cruelly ravaged, and many of them killed. In making the attack Kieft was acting against the wishes of many of the settlers. One man in particular, De Vries, a leading patroon, did his utmost to check Kieft. Failing in this, he left the colony in despair, warning Kieft

that all the innocent blood that he had shed would be avenged on himself. The Indians were taken by surprise, but they soon collected their forces. ravaged the Dutch country, and penned the settlers within the walls of New Amsterdam. After heavy losses on each side, peace was made. Besides this there were other less important hostilities between the Dutch and the Indians. Luckily the settlers, like the New Englanders, contrived to make friends with the Mohawks. It is said that the first Dutch colonists in 1617 made a treaty with them. This was renewed in 1645; and, as the Indians whom the Dutch attacked were enemies to the Mohawks, the alliance was not weakened by this war. In 1646 the Dutch got into a dispute with the Swedes, who were settled by the river Delaware, on land which both nations claimed. In 1651 Stuyvesant established a fort on the disputed territory, In 1654 the Swedes appeared before the fort with a small force, and the Dutch commander surrendered. In the next year Stuyvesant retook the place. No further attempt was made to recover it, and the only Swedish settlement in America became part of New Netherlands.



FORT ON THE DELAWARE.

It was but natural that England should covet the territory of New Netherlands. The Dutch were then, as the Spaniards had been a century before, the great naval and commercial rivals of the English. Moreover, as long as New Netherlands belonged to any other nation, it was impossible for the northern and southern colonies of England to become united. If the English government had foreseen the possibility of the colonies ever combining in a revolt against the mother country, they might have preferred to keep New Netherlands as a check upon them. But the English were not likely to think of that danger, and looked on New Netherlands only as interfering with their commerce. Moreover, New Amsterdam had the best harbor of any place along the coast, and no other river gave such a highway for the Indian fur trade as the Hudson. The only title which the English had to the place was that they claimed to have discovered it before the Dutch. But even if this were so, it could hardly be thought that this was of any weight, after they had suffered the Dutch to occupy the country unmolested for some fifty years. Nevertheless, in 1664 Charles II. and his advisers, while England and Holland were at peace, resolved to assert this claim. They

sent out a fleet of four ships, with a force of four hundred and fifty men on board, under the command of Colonel Nicholls. The commissioners who were at the same time sent out to New England were ordered to assist Nicholls, and to get aid from the New England colonies. Massachusetts refused help, but the Connecticut settlers, being old enemies of the Dutch. came forward readily. In August the fleet appeared before New Amsterdam. The place was weakly fortified, and ill-supplied with men and ammu-Nevertheless, Stuyvesant was for holding out. When Nicholls sent a letter offering liberal terms of surrender, Stuyvesant tore it in pieces. The settlers, however, demanded to see the letter, and the fragments were put together and laid before them. The people, when they heard the terms offered, flocked to Stuyvesant, and besought him to surrender and avoid the risk of an attack. At first he declared that he would rather be carried out dead; but at length, finding that scarcely any one supported him, and that even his own son was against him, he vielded. By the terms of the treaty, the garrison was allowed to march out with all the honors of war, and the property of the settlers was not injured. The remaining settlements followed the example of the capital. One place alone, New Amstel, held out. It was taken with slight loss, and by Oetober the whole country had submitted. By this conquest England obtained the whole sea-coast from the Kennebec to the Savannah. Thus the acquirement of New Netherlands by England was a turning-point in American history. It made it possible for the English colonies to become one united dominion. The new territory was granted to the Duke of York as proprietor. The name of the country and of the capital were both changed to New York. Part of the territory was sold to a company of proprietors, and afterwards formed the province of New Jersey. The rest was placed under the government of Nicholls. The charter granted to the Duke of York gave him full power to make laws. Nothing was said, as in the charter of Maryland, about the advice or assistance of the freemen. In 1665 Nicholls called together a Convention of the settlers, to advise and help him in drawing up a system of government and a code of laws, but without allowing them any power of enacting laws. The government was to be in the hands of a Governor and a Council. No steps were taken towards giving the people representatives. The only harsh measure adopted was that all grants of land had to be renewed, and a fee paid for renewal, In 1667 Nicholls was succeeded by Francis Lovelace, the head of a distinguished royalist family. In 1672 war broke out between England and Holland. In the next year a Dutch fleet threatened New York. Lovelace and the English officers with him showed no such resolute spirit as Stuyvesant had displayed in a like case, and the place was at once surrendered. The country took back its old name, while the capital was called Orange, in honor of the Stadtholder, William of Orange, then at the

height of his popularity. But the Dutch only held the country for fifteen months, too short a time to make any important change, and in 1674 the treaty of Breda ended the war, and restored the territory to the English. Thenceforth New York, as it was again called, remained an English pos-

The Governor now appointed by the Duke of York was Andros, whose later dealings with New England have been already told. As before, the transfer to the English was effected with little or no injury to the private rights of the settlers. Their desire for a Representative Assembly was at

first disregarded.

In 1681 the people made a formal petition for a government like those of the New England colonies, and the Duke promised to consider their request. In 1683 Colonel Dongan, an Irishman of good family, was sent over as Governor. He was instructed to call an Assembly of eighteen representatives elected by the freeholders. They were to make laws, subject to the Duke's approval, and to decide about taxation. In October the first New York Assembly met. Its first proceeding was to draw up a charter of liberties. This enacted that the government should be perpetually vested in a Governor, Council, and Assembly; that all freeholders and freemen of corporations should have votes; that freedom of conscience should be granted to all Christians, and that no tax should be levied without the consent of the Assembly. This charter of liberties received the king's assent. The dealings of James II. with New York are as hard to be understood as any part of his seemingly strange and capricious policy. In 1686 the Assembly of New York, like those of the New England colonies, was annulled, and the whole government transferred to Dongan and his Council. He was instructed to provide for the celebration of the worship of the Church of England throughout the colony. Moreover, no one was to keep a school without a license from the Archbishop of Canterbury. About this time the settlers had important dealings with the Indians. The English government kept to the policy of their Dutch predecessors, and encouraged the friendship of the Mohawks. In 1678 Andros had a friendly conference with them, and in 1683 Dongan renewed the alliance. In the next year ambassadors from the five nations of the Mohawk confederacy met the Governors of New York and Virginia at Albany, made them solemn promises of friendship, and asked to have the Duke of York's arms placed over the log forts. Throughout his term of office, Dongan seems to have been more alive than most of our Colonial Governors to the importance of encouraging the friendship of the Mohawks, and preventing any alliance between them and the French; it was in a great measure due to this that, while Massachusetts and New Hampshire were being ravaged by the Canadian Indians, New York enjoyed security.

As in New England, so in New York, the English revolution of 1688 was accompanied by a colonial one. But the New York revolution was not marked by the same moderation as that in New England. In 1688 Dongan was succeeded by Andros. He was represented in New York by a deputy, Nicholson, a man wanting in judgment, with neither firmness to control nor ability to conciliate the colonists. When the news of the revolution arrived the people rose, under the leadership of one Leisler. He was a German by birth, able, honest, and energetic; but violent, ambitious, unedueated, and utterly without political experience. He took the government into his own hands, turned out those officers who differed from him in politics or religion, and imprisoned some of them. He used his power in so arbitrary a fashion that a counter-revolution soon sprang up. The party opposed to Leisler established itself at Albany, and for a time the colony was divided between two governments. The Albany party was far more temperate than Leisler, and, like the New Englanders, held its authority only until some orders should come out from England, whereas Leisler seized the governorship without waiting for any commission. When a letter came out from King William to Nicholson, authorizing him to carry on the government, Leisler intercepted it, and told the people that he had a commission from the Crown. In 1691 the king sent Colonel Sloughter as Governor. Unluckily he was detained on his way by bad weather. Major Ingoldsby, who was next in command, but who had no authority to act as. commander-in-chief or governor, landed in February, and summoned Leisler to give up the government. He refused, on the ground that Ingoldsby had no authority, to which the latter could only answer that Leisler had none either. Leisler then established himself in the fort of New York and fired on the king's troops. In March, Sloughter arrived. He summoned the insurgents to surrender, but Leisler, so far from complying, made a like demand of Sloughter. Soon after, however, finding that he was deserted by his followers, and that his two chief supporters, who had been sent to treat with Sloughter, were seized and imprisoned, Leisler vielded. He and the other ringleaders in the revolt were tried, and eight of them sentenced to death; but all of them, except Leisler and his chief supporter, Milborne, were pardoned. Sloughter, it is said, was unwilling to put any to death, but was overpersuaded by those who had suffered from Leisler's tyranny.

In March, 1691, Sloughter called an Assembly. The Assembly annulled all the Acts of Leisler's government. It also passed an Act which was designed to be a sort of charter for the colony, like the earlier charter of liberties. This Act set forth the rights of the colonists and their relation to the Crown. It enacted that New York should be under a government consisting, like that of other colonies, of a Governor, Council, and Representatives, and that this body only should have power to impose taxes.

The king refused his assent to this Act, and New York was thus left withont any written constitution. Nevertheless, the proposed form of government was adopted. The division into two parties, which had begun with Leisler's insurrection, lasted after his death. Fletcher, who succeeded Sloughter in 1691, was regarded as the champion of those who had opposed



FIRST SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK.

Leisler. His folly and violence soon involved him in disputes with the Assembly. A bill was passed by the Assembly for endowing the clergy at the expense of the colony. Fletcher wished to add a clause giving the Governor the right of appointment. The Assembly refused their assent to this, whereupon Fletcher reproved and dismissed them. Moreover, he granted large tracts of land in the backwoods to his favorites, thereby impoverishing the State and endangering the alliance with the Mohawks. In 1698 Fletcher was succeeded by Lord Bellomont. Though a far abler and better man than Fletcher, he too suffered himself to be made the leader of a party, consisting mainly of Leisler's surviving followers. He annulled Fletcher's grants of land, and in a speech to the Assembly heaped abuse upon his memory, saying that he had himself received "the legacy of a divided people, an empty purse, a few miserable, naked, half-starved soldiers; in a word, the whole government out of frame." In 1701 Bellamont died, having done as much to strengthen the popular party by his encouragement as Fletcher had by his ill-judged severity. The next governor, Lord Cornbury, made himself hateful to both parties alike. He was a grandson of the famous Lord Clarendon. Like his father and grandfather, he was a strong partisan of the Established Church, but his whole conduct and character were such as to bring disgrace on any cause that he took up. He was extravagant and dishonest, fond of low pleasures and indecent buffoonery. He embezzled money raised by the Assembly for public purposes, and imposed illegal taxes and exorbitant fees. He also incurred the displeasure of the people by threatening to put in force the penal laws against Dissenters, which the colonists alleged were not binding out of England. The Assembly passed a series of resolutions denouncing his conduct, in one of which they declared that no money could be levied in the colony without the consent of the Assembly. In 1708 Cornbury's misdeeds were brought before the notice of the queen. She deprived him of his governorship, and his creditors thereupon seized him and threw him into prison.

For the next forty years the history of New York, like that of Massachusetts during the same time, is little more than a string of disputes between the Governor and the Assembly. In Fletcher's time, the whole of the State revenue was handed over to the Governor, and the expenditure of it was entirely entrusted to him. In 1705 this was so far changed, that a treasurer was appointed by the colony to receive all money raised for any special purpose over and above the regular revenue. In 1710 the disputes began. The Assembly claimed the sole power of levying taxes, and denied the Council any right of amending money bills, declaring that the people could not be deprived of their property except by their own consent as given by their representatives. They also said plainly that, even if the opinion of the English Board for Plantations was opposed to them, they should still hold to their own view. Soon after this, Governor Hunter established a Court of Chancery. The Assembly passed a resolution that. this was illegal, and that no fees could be exacted without their consent. They also claimed the right of controlling the expenditure of the revenue. Soon after, however, they gave way on this latter point. Hunter was succeeded in 1720 by William Burnet, the same who was afterwards Governor of Massachusetts. In his time the dispute about the Court of Chancery was renewed. The representatives so far prevailed that the fees in that court

were lowered. Under Governor Cosby, who came out in 1722, the disputes reached their height. At first he succeeded in enlisting the Assembly on his side, and for a while things went on as he wished. The length of time during which an Assembly might continue without an election was not defined by law; and Cosby, finding that he had got an Assembly that suited him, kept it for the imprecedented period of six years from its election. The people became furious, but the power of dissolving the Assembly lay with the Governor, and there was no remedy. A fresh Assembly was not elected till 1737, a year after Cosby's death. But the temporary ascendency of the Governor's party had only served to inflame and strengthen the opposition to it, and the next Assembly took a bolder course than any before it. Their position was probably improved by the fact that the new Governor had not yet come out, and was represented by a Lieutenant-Governor. The Assembly at once drew up an address to the Lieutenant-Governor, plainly declaring that they would only grant such a revenue as they deemed proper, and that only for one year; and that they would not even do that, until such laws had been passed as they thought needful for the welfare of the colony. Upon this the Lieutenant-Governor dissolved the Assembly, and a fresh one was elected; but with the same result. The Assembly voted liberal grants for the support of the French war then going forward, but refused to give the Lieutenant-Governor the control over the public funds. From this time the claims of the Assembly seem to have been quietly admitted.

During this time, New York, unlike the other northern colonies, had enjoyed security from the Indians. This was partly due to its position, sheltered as it was by the country of the Mohawks. Moreover, Peter Schuyler, who commanded the New York forces for a considerable time both before and after the revolution, took great pains to renew the alliance with the Mohawks; and wishing to impress on the English Court the necessity of keeping friends with them, he took five of their chiefs over to England. While it remained in the possession of the Dutch, New York enjoyed no great prosperity; but under English rule it became one of the richest and most thriving of the American colonies. The climate was good, and the soil fer-As in Virginia, the rivers gave great facilities for carriage. The people were more frugal in their habits, and, it is said, more thrifty and gainloving, than the New Englanders. Their exports consisted mainly of farmproduce, timber, and fur. In the fur-trade, the neighborhood of the Mohawks and the possession of the Hudson gave New York a great advantage over the other States. As under Dutch rule, the colony continued to be a refuge for emigrants of all nations. Governor Hunter brought out three thousand German Protestants who had fled from the Palatinate to avoid persecution. A number of French Huguenots also came out. Among this multitude of

different races there was of course great diversity of religion. There were English Episeopalians, Dutch and French Calvinists, Scotch Presbyterians, German Reformers, Quakers and Moravians, Baptists and Jews. In fact, whether we look to the variety of its resources, the diversity of its people, or the number of its religions, we may say that New York in the eighteenth century was a sort of model and representative of the whole body of English colonies.



THE OLD STATE-HOUSE AT COLUMBIA.

## CHAPTER IV.

THE CAROLINAS.

ETWEEN the southern frontier of Virginia and the Spanish settlements lay a large tract of land, for the most part fertile and well watered. Raleigh's two colonies had been placed on this coast. After them no English settlement seems to have been made south of Virginia till about 1655. At that time two small parties of emigrants established themselves in this country, one from Virginia, the other from Massachusetts. In 1663 Lord Clarendon, Lord Shaftesbury, and other friends of Charles II., obtained from him a grant of land. Their terri-

tory began at the southern boundary of Virginia, and reached nearly five hundred miles along the coast. It was to be called Carolina, in honor of the king. The colony was probably intended in a great measure as a refuge for those royalists who had suffered heavy losses in the civil war, and whom the king was unable or unwilling to compensate in any other way. Full

power was given to the proprietors to make laws and to manage the affairs of the province. One of the first things that the proprietors did was to draw up a most elaborate constitution for their new State. This was done by John Locke, the great philosopher, and Lord Shaftesbury, and was called the Fundamental Constitutions. The country was to be minutely and exactly divided into counties, which were to be subdivided into seigniories, baronies, precincts, and colonies. There were to be noblemen of two orders, in numbers proportioned to those of the settlers. The eldest of the proprietors was to be called the Palatine, and was to be the supreme officer. Each of the proprietors was to hold a court in his own barouy with six councillors and twelve deputies, called assistants. There was to be a parliament, meeting once in two years, and consisting of the proprietors, the noblemen, and the representatives elected by the freeholders.

This constitution met with the same fate as the elaborate one devised by Gorges for his colony. It was drawn up without any real knowledge of the special wants and the manner of life of a new State, nor do the proprietors, after framing it, ever seem to have made any vigorous effort to put it in force. At first they did not even attempt to unite the various settlements under a single government. Each of those already existing was placed under a separate government, composed like those in the other colonies of a Governor, a Council, and a House of Representatives. The Council was to be appointed by the proprietors out of a number of candidates chosen by the people. The two settlements were called after two of the proprietors, the Duke of Albemarle (formerly General Monk), and the Earl of Clarendon. Albemarle was the settlement formed by the emigrants from Virginia. The Massachusetts settlers, further to the south, very soon left, driven away either by fear of the Indians or by the barrenness of the soil. Their place was filled by emigrants from Barbadoes. The proprietors, anxious to people their territory, tempted their settlers by very liberal terms. They gave each man a hundred acres of land for himself, a hundred for every one of his children, and fifty for every woman or slave that he took out. In return he had to provide himself with a gun, a supply of ammunition, and food for six months. Besides these settlements the proprietors formed a third, about three hundred miles to the south. This was divided into four counties, and like the northern settlement was at first chiefly peopled from Barbadoes. Though they were not yet so called, we may for convenience speak of these settlements by the names which they afterwards bore, North and South Carolina, the former including both Albemarle and Clarendon.

The whole country before long fell into confusion. The proprietors always gave out that the separate governments were only temporary, and were to be replaced by the Fundamental Constitutions. Thus the people,

though enjoying present freedom, were dissatisfied, not knowing how soon they might be subjected to a government distasteful and unsuited to them. Moreover, many of the settlers seem to have been men of doubtful character. The proprietors ordered that no person should be sued for debts incurred out of the colony. This apparently was done to attract settlers thither. Thus the colony, like Virginia in early times, was in danger of becoming a refuge for the destitute and ill-conducted. Their mode of life was not likely to better matters. For several years there was no minister of religion in Albemarle. The proprietors, too, showed little regard for the welfare of the colony in their choice of officers, and disturbances soon broke out. In the northern province the proprietors appointed one of their own body, Millar, who was already unpopular with the settlers, to be the collector of quit-rents. Among a poor and not over-loyal people, the post was a difficult one, and Millar made it more so by harshness and imprudence. A revolution broke out. Millar was seized, but he escaped, and the Governor, Eastchurch, was deposed. He died just after, and one of the proprietors, Sothel, went out as Governor. He fared no better, and after six years of confusion was forced to resign. He then went to South Carolina, where he took up the cause of the settlers, headed an insurrection, in which Colleton, the Governor, also a proprietor, was deposed, and was himself chosen by the people in his stead. From this it would seem as if either Sothel's misdeeds in North Carolina had been exaggerated by his enemies, or as if there was hardly any communication between the Northern and Southern provinces. The proprietors, though they had been indifferent to the welfare of the settlers, showed no wish to deal harshly with them. 1693 they passed a resolution declaring that, as the settlers wished to keep their present government rather than adopt the Fundamental Constitutions, it would be best to give them their own way. Thus Locke's constitution perished, having borne no fruit.

Two years later John Archdale, one of the proprietors, went out as Governor. He was a Quaker, and seems to have been in every way well fitted for the post. By lowering the quit-rents and allowing them to be paid in produce instead of money, by making peace with the Indians, and by attention to roads and public works, he gave prosperity, and, for a time, peace to the colony. One thing which especially furthered its welfare was the introduction of rice. The climate and soil of South Carolina were found to be specially suited to it, and the colony soon became the rice-market for all the American colonies. Silk and cotton also might have been produced to advantage, but the cultivation of rice was so profitable that little time or labor was left for any other work. One bad effect of this was that it forced the colonists to employ large numbers of negro slaves. The work in the rice plantations was very unhealthy, and

This familiarized could only be endured by the natives of a sultry climate. the Carolina settlers with slavery, and they fell into the regular practice of kidnapping the Indians and selling them to the West India Islands.

Partly through the above mentioned practice, both Carolinas were at an early time engaged in serious wars with the Indians. These were the more



SLAVES AT WORK

lived, like those of Virginia, for the most part in scattered plantations, each on his own land. Fortunately for the settlers in North Carolina, the Indians in that neighborhood were mostly broken up into many small tribes, under no common head. But in South Carolina the Creeks, the Cherokees, the Appalachians, and the Yamassees were all formidable nations. The first important contest with the Indians was in 1703. In that year one Moore, Governor of

South Carolina, invaded the country of the Appalachians, on the ground that they were allies of the Spaniards, with whom the English were then at war. He devastated their country and compelled them to submit to the English government. After that, he planted fourteen hundred of them on the southern frontier as a sort of outpost against the Spaniards in Florida and the Southern Indians. In 1711 North Carolina became engaged in a more serious Indian war. About that time a number of German Protestants from the Palatinate, being persecuted by their Elector, fled to various parts of America. A number of them settled in North Carolina. Their leader, Baron Grafenried, with Lawson, the surveyor of the colony, went to measure lands for the German settlement. The Tuscaroras, a warlike tribe, thinking that their territory was encroached on, seized them. Lawson was put to death, but Grafenried pleaded that he was a foreigner, and had nothing to do with the English, and the Indians accordingly spared him. seems doubtful whether the Tuscaroras had been already meditating an attack, or whether they thought that, having killed Lawson, they would have to fight, and so had better strike the first blow. They invaded the English territory in small bands, and cut off in one day about a hundred and twenty settlers. Yet they showed some sense both of humanity and honesty by sparing the Germans, on the strength of a treaty made with Grafenried. The North Carolina settlers sent for help to their southern neighbors. They at once sent a small force with a number of Indian allies from the southern tribes. No decisive blow was struck. But the next year a large force was sent from the south, and the Tuscaroras were crushed. A peace was made, by which they promised to give up to the English twenty Indians, the chief contrivers of Lawson's murder and of the massacre, to restore all their prisoners and spoil, and to give two hostages from each of their villages. The greater part of the Tuscarora nation left the country and joined the confederacy of the Mohawks. In this, as in the New England wars, the Indians were defeated rather through their own divisions than through the strength of the English.

In 1715 South Carolina was exposed to vet greater danger. From the very outset, the Spaniards in Florida had been jealous and unfriendly neighbors to the English. Their chief settlement was at St. Augustine, a hundred and seventy miles south of the river Savannah, which was practically the southern boundary of Carolina. They had encouraged the slaves of the English to run away, and as early as 1670 had made a raid into the English territory. For thirty years after this no open hostility took place. In 1702, as Spain and England were at war, Moore planned an expedition against St. Augustine by sea and land. He reached the town, but alarmed by the arrival of two Spanish ships, he retreated without striking a blow. Soon after the Spaniards began to seduce the Yamassees, a large and powerful tribe who had hitherto been friends of the English. This design was furthered by the humanity of Charles Craven, the Governor of South Carolina, who often sent back the Yamassees with Spanish prisoners, whom they had taken and would have tortured. This gave the Spaniards opportunities of intriguing with the Yamassee chiefs. In 1715 a combined force of the Yamassees and other southern tribes, making in all more than seven thousand warriors, attacked the English settlements. The Governor could only bring against them twelve hundred men. Yet he defeated them after a fierce battle, and drove them out of the colony, though not before they had killed four hundred settlers. It is said that the Spaniards at St. Augustine welcomed the Yamassees on their return, ringing bells and firing Though repulsed, the Yamassees continued for many years to harass the English. Four years later a Spanish fleet sailed from Havana against the Carolinas. It first attacked the Bahamas, islands off the southern point of Florida, where there was an English settlement, but it was The defeat, followed by a heavy storm, prevented it from attacking the Carolinas. The multitude of slaves made the hostility of the Spaniard specially dangerous. If the slaves should revolt, the settlers might at any time have to deal with enemies without and rebels within. In the case of the Indians this danger was less felt, since the Indians and the negroes detested one another, and there was little fear of any sort of combination between them. But the Spaniards looked upon the multitude of slaves as a weak point in the English settlements, and in a later war they paraded a regiment made up wholly of negroes, officers and all, in front of

their forces, as a bait to the English slaves to join them.

In the meantime, internal disturbances had sprung up in both colonies. In 1705, the Dissenters in South Carolina sent a petition to the queen, calling attention to the misgovernment of the proprietors, and the law officers of the Crown were ordered to commence proceedings for a writ of Quo warranto. Nothing, however, came of this. In 1717, the Assembly of South Carolina passed a law that the election of representatives should be held, not, as before, at the capital, Charlestown, but in the different counties. This, by making it easier for all the freemen, especially for the poorer sort, to vote, strengthened the hands of the people and weakened the influence of the proprietors. At the same time, the Assembly imposed a heavy import duty on English goods. The proprietors annulled both these Acts. They also provoked the colonists by increasing the number of the Council from seven to twelve. Moreover, there was a general feeling in the colony that the proprietors cared only for their own pockets, and were indifferent to the welfare of the people. The colonists accordingly broke out into open revolt against the proprietors. Robert Johnson, the Governor, was himself popular, and the people endeavored to enlist him on their side; but he remained loyal to the proprietors. The colonists then deposed him, and appointed James Moore to be Governor. At the same time they The effect of his sent over an agent to England to plead their cause. representation was that South Carolina was made a royal colony. Nicholson, a man of considerable experience in the colonies, was sent out as the first Governor. Under the new system the colony throve, and the rapid improvement in its condition was the best proof of the misgovernment of the proprietors. Peace was made with the Southern Indians. Clergymen were sent out, partly at the expense of the colony, partly by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and schools were established throughout the colony. Before long, North Carolina too passed under the government of the Crown. Though there was not such an open display of enmity as in the southern colony, yet the people were known to be disaffected to the proprietors. In 1729, the proprietors voluntarily surrendered their rights, and North Carolina became a royal colony. The change was made without dispute, and apparently with the good will of all concerned.

In spite of these disturbances the actual resources of the two colonies, especially of the southern provinces, were so great that, when quiet was restored, they quickly became rich and prosperous. In the whole country there was but one town, Charlestown, the capital of South Carolina. Its position, and its neighborhood to the West India Islands, made it the most important place south of New York. About two hundred ships sailed thence every year. In climate and soil, the two colonies were much alike. But while the rivers of South Carolina afforded good harborage for small vessels, most of those in North Carolina were lost in large and unwholesome swamps before reaching the sea. This, coupled with the fact that there was no place in North Carolina like Charlestown, gave the southern colony a superiority in commerce, and hence in political activity and education, which it long kept. In one point the two Carolinas resembled New York rather than their southern neighbors, Virginia and Maryland. The population included a large number of foreigners, French, German, and Swiss, most of them refugees, who had fled from persecution in their own country.



## CHAPTER XIII.

THE QUAKER COLONIES.

N the history of New England we have already met with the sect of Quakers, or Friends. The first members of that sect were wild and noisy fanatics, but before long men of good family and education joined them, and under such leaders the Quakers took an important part in the colonization of America. The greatest and most prominent of these men was William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania. But before that colony was settled, another had come into being, not consisting wholly of Quakers, but numbering many of them among its inhabitants.

That State was New Jersey. As we have already seen, the Duke of York, as soon as he came into possession of New Netherlands, sold about one-twelfth of it, that is to say, some seven thousand square miles, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Although this only formed a small part of his whole territory, it was in value scarcely inferior to all the rest put together. For it included nearly the whole seaboard of about a hundred and twenty miles in length, and consequently it was the best place for fresh colonists. Moreover, the greater part of it was almost uninhabited, and the proprietors could sell or let the land in parcels, while in the rest of New Netherlands there were Dutch and Swedes, who claimed the soil as their own, and often refused any payment to the proprietors. This territory was also well protected from the Indians, on the west by the river Delaware, and

on the north and north-west by the inhabited districts of New Netherlands. Moreover, unlike most of the colonies, it had a fixed boundary to the west, and thus the settlers were kept from straggling, and held together in towns and villages. When Nicholls, the Governor of New York, discovered all this, thinking that his master had done unwisely to part with the land, he tried to set aside the sale, but in vain. The new colony was called New Jersey, in honor of Carteret, who had bravely defended Jersey against the parliamentary forces in the great rebellion. The government was to consist, like those of the other colonies, of a Governor, Conneil, and Representatives. No taxes were to be imposed except by consent of this government. The proprietors retained the right of annulling any law, and of appointing colonial officers. All religious sects were to enjoy liberty of worship, and equal political rights. At the time of the purchase, New Jersey was almost uninhabited. A few Dutch and Swedes had settled in the country, and a few New England Puritans, who had been driven out of Massachusetts, among



them some of Mrs. Hutchinson's followers, had sought a refuge there, and had been allowed by the Dutch to form settlements. Several of these had obtained a right to the soil by purchase from the Indians. In 1665, Philip Carteret, a nephew of Sir George, was sent out as governor. He founded a town, called, after Lady Carteret, Elizabethtown. A number of colonists came in from New Eng-In 1668, the first Assembly was held at Elizabethtown, and some of the laws passed show that the colonists were influenced by the ideas and habits of New England. In 1670 a dispute arose between the proprietors and the settlers. The former elaimed quit-rents for the land. The latter refused to pay, pleading that, by buying the ground from the Indians, they

had ownership of it, and that, if they allowed the proprietors' claim, they would be paying twice over. The dispute led to an insurrection. In 1672 the people drove out Philip Carteret and the other government officers, and chose as Governor, James Carteret, a kinsman of Sir George, who had nevertheless taken the side of the settlers. A year later, the Dutch, as we have seen, got back for a short time all that had been taken from them by the

English. But in New Jersey, as in New York, the short period of Dutch occupation made no special change.

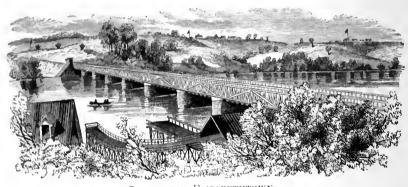
When, by the treaty of 1674, the Dutch settlements were finally given up to the English, the king granted them by a fresh deed to the Duke of York. This grant took in the lands which the Duke had sold to Berkeley and Carteret. They contended that their right still held good, and the duke granted their claim. Nevertheless, he afterwards asserted a right of levying certain duties in New Jersey, which led him into several disputes, both with the proprietors and the settlers. In 1674, Lord Berkeley, being dissatisfied with the results of his colony, and with his ill-treatment, as it must have seemed to him, at the hands of the Duke of York and the colonists, sold his right in the land to two Quakers, Fenwick and Bylling. Soon after, Bylling, in consequence of a dispute with Fenwick, sold his share to three other Quakers, of whom William Penn was one. They, wishing to set up a separate colony, persuaded Sir George Carteret to divide the territory with them. This he did, and for some time it formed two separate States, East and West New Jersey, the former belonging to Carteret, the latter to the Quakers. The eastern division contained about four thousand settlers. The western was much more scantily inhabited, and so was fitter for the purpose of its proprietors. Their object was to found a colony which might be a refuge for the Quakers, as New England had been for the Puritans. They drew up a constitution for their new State. Except in two points, it was like the earlier constitution framed by Carteret and Berkeley. The Council was not to be appointed by the proprietors, but chosen by the Assembly, and to prevent disturbances at elections the voting for representatives was to be by ballot. In 1677, four hundred Quakers emigrated to West New Jersey. In 1680 a dispute arose between the proprietors and the Duke of York. Andros, who was then Governor of New York, tried to levy an import duty in New Jersey; Penn and his colleagues resisted. They pleaded that they had bought the land from Lord Berkeley; that they had thereby acquired his rights; that one of these rights was that the colony should be subject to no laws, but those of its own making and those of England, and that therefore a law imposed by Andros could not bind them. They represented that to tax the settlers without their consent would be infringing their rights as Englishmen, and that they would never have braved the perils of a distant voyage and a new country, unless with a hope of having those rights enlarged rather than lessened. The English Judges before whom the question came decided in favor of New Jersey.

Meanwhile East Jersey had undergone a complete change. In 1679, Sir George Carteret died; his affairs were in such a bad state that it was needful to sell his property for the benefit of his creditors. The Quakers, satisfied with the success of their settlement in West Jersey, decided to make a like

attempt in the eastern colony. Accordingly, Penn and eleven others purchased it from Carteret's representatives. But as East, unlike West, Jersey had already a large number of settlers, the new proprietors did not attempt to make it wholly a Quaker settlement. They associated with them a number of Scotchmen, and the colony was soon filled with Scotch emigrants. government was like that of the western colony, except that the Council consisted of the proprietors and their deputies. The more important officers were to be appointed by the Governor and Council. All Christians were eligible for public offices, and no man was to be molested in any way for his religion.

James II.'s scheme for making one great State out of the northern colonies took in both the Jerseys. To earry it into execution, in 1686, writs of Quo warranto were issued against both governments. The professed grounds were some charges of smuggling brought against the inhabitants. The proprietors of East Jersey yielded their patent on condition that the king should not meddle with their private rights over the land. West Jersey would probably have been forced to do likewise, but, before the surrender of the eastern colony could take effect, James had ceased to reign.

The Revolution brought no change in the constitution of either of the colonies. By 1700, the number of settlers in East Jersey was about twelve thousand, and in West Jersey about eight thousand. The inhabitants were prosperous, though not wealthy. Like Virginia, the country was abundantly



SCENE NEAR ELIZABETHTOWN.

supplied with rivers, and water carriage was easy; but the settlers did not live in scattered plantations like the Virginians. There were some twelve towns, of which Burlington and Elizabethtown were the largest, each containing between two and three hundred houses. From the first the country seems to have been almost deserted by the Indians, and by 1700 there were not more than two hundred in both colonies. Their small number was not due to any cruelty on the part of the settlers. On the other hand, the two

races seem to have been perfectly friendly, and the English are said to have found the Indians so helpful that they wished for more of them.

Notwithstanding the prosperity of the two colonies, neither of them brought much good to their proprietors. Both changed hands several times, and in the process various disputes arose. Different persons claimed the governorship at the same time, each professing to be appointed by a majority of the proprietors. Besides this, the settlers became engaged in a dispute with New York. The government of that State, presuming on its old connection with New Jersey, attempted to levy a tax on the inhabitants. The Jersey settlers refused to pay, and the question was referred to the Crown lawyers in England. They ruled that no colony could be taxed, excent by Act of Parliament or by its own Assembly. Wearied with these disputes, and finding little profit from their property, in 1702 the proprietors of both colonies surrendered their rights to the Crown. The two provinces were again united, and New Jersey became a royal colony. The new constitution was after the ordinary colonial pattern. There was to be a Governor and twelve Councillors, appointed by the Crown, and twentyfour Deputies elected by the people. The right of voting for deputies was confined to those who possessed a hundred acres of land, or fifty pounds worth of other property. The Governor was to appoint all officers, and to command the forces of the colony. Political equality was granted to all sects, except Roman Catholics. The first Governor appointed was Lord Cornbury. As in New York, he made himself odious by imposing exorbitant fees and interfering with the proceedings of the Assembly. Yet New Jersey fared somewhat better than New York, as, being fully occupied with his government of the latter colony, Lord Cornbury for the most part governed New Jersey by a deputy.

Of the early Quakers the most conspicuous was William Penn. In position, ability, and education he stood far above the generality of his sect. His father, Admiral Penn, was a distinguished seaman, and stood high in the favor of Charles II., by whom he was knighted. His son, while at Oxford, is said to have shown symptoms of those strict and unusual views in religious matters which he afterwards displayed more fully. This temper, however, seemed for a while to have disappeared, and he came back from a foreign tour with all the graces and accomplishments of a polished gentleman. Soon after this, it became known, to the dismay of his friends and the wonder of the fashionable world, that he had joined an obscure sect, headed by an illiterate and fanatical cobbler. His father cast him off, and the magistrates sent him to prison for attending Quaker meetings. After undergoing all these trials with unswerving constancy, he was at length reconciled to his father, and, like him, enjoyed the favor of the king and the

Duke of York.

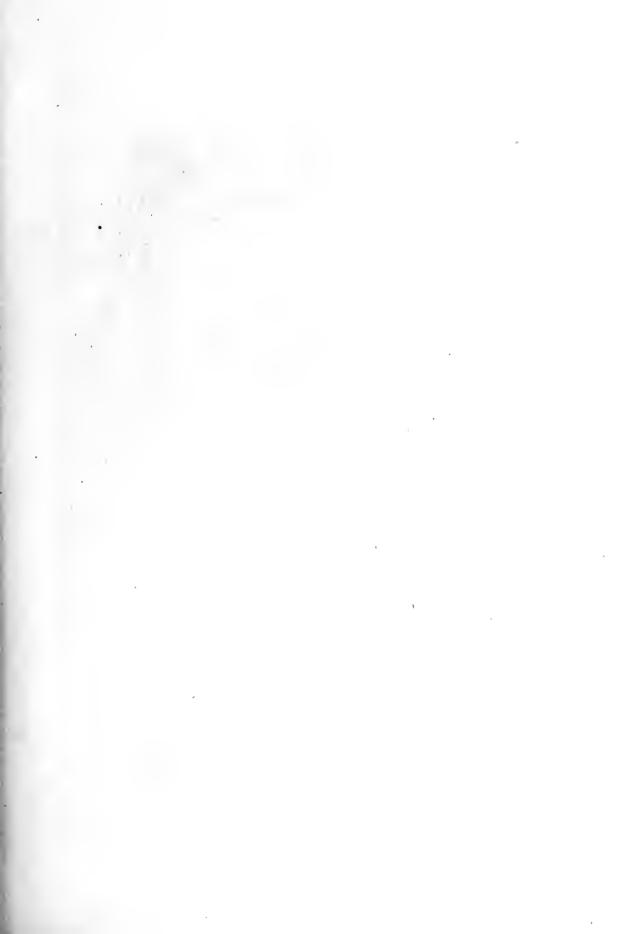
Penn was, as we have seen, a proprietor both in East and West New Jersey, and took a leading part in the settlement of those colonies. Soon afterwards, he bethought him of founding an exclusively Quaker colony, with laws and institutions suited to the peculiar views of his sect. With this object, in 1680 he got from the king a grant of land between Maryland and New York. This is said to have been given as a quittance for sixteen thousand pounds, lent by Admiral Penn to the Crown. The territory was called, by the wish of the king, Pennsylvania. The grant was opposed by the Privy Council, by the Council for Plantations, by the proprietors of New York and Maryland. All these obstacles, however, were overcome. At the same time Penn received a charter as proprietor, much like that granted to Baltimore. It gave him the power of making laws with the advice and assent of the freemen. It also gave him the command over the forces of the colony, a provision somewhat inconsistent with the principles of the Quakers, who condemned all war as sinful. In that year three ships sailed out with emigrants, and in the next year Penn himself followed. He drew up a set of rules for the first settlers. The most important of these was that no one was to have more than a thousand acres of land lying together, unless within three years he should plant a family on every thousand acres. To guard the Indians from being cheated, all trade with them was to be in



PENN'S ASSEMBLY-HOUSE.

open market. This year Penn got from the Duke of York a small grant of land at the south-east of New York, then called the Territories of Pennsylvania, and now forming the State of Delaware. This tract of land and Penn's original colony, as long as they remained under one government, were generally distinguished, the former as the Territories, the latter as the Province. The whole country was divided into six counties, three in the Province and three in the Territories. In May, 1682, Penn set forth the constitution. The government was to consist, as in the other colonies, of a Governor, Council, and

Assembly. The councillors were not to be appointed by the proprietor, but chosen, as they had been in West Jersey, by the settlers. They were to be elected for three years, the deputies for one. Each county was to send members to the Council and to the Assembly. At the same time Penn published various laws. No conformity in religion was to be required from any private person beyond a belief in one God. All public officers, however, were to profess themselves Christians. All children were to be taught some trade, and the criminals in prisons were to be usefully



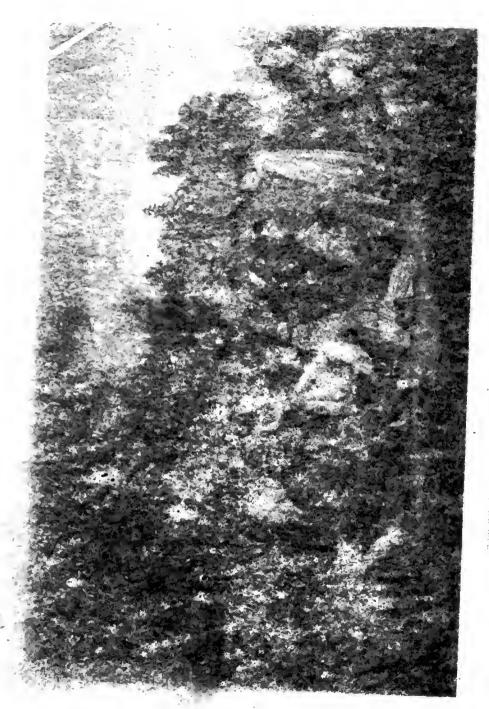
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employed. No part of Penn's conduct in settling his colony was more honorable than his treatment of the Indians. Soon after landing he held a conference with them, and laid the foundation of a lasting friendship. In none of the colonies were the relations between the two races so uniformly friendly as in Pennsylvania. For a long while the highest praise that the Indians could give a white man was to liken him to *Onas*, as they called Penn.

In May, 1684, Penn was forced by stress of business to return to England. Before he went he appointed a Governor in his place. Soon after his departure dissension arose from various causes. A violent dispute had broken out the year before with Maryland about boundaries. In 1684, the Marylanders attempted to possess themselves by force of some of the disputed lands. The question was settled in the next year by the English government. In 1690 a quarrel broke out between the Province and the Territories. Some of the deputies chosen by the Territories took upon themselves to usurp the place of the whole Assembly, and to carry on business in its name. Other disputes followed, and at length Penn thought it best to give the Territories a separate government. Penn's friendship for James II. naturally prejudiced William and Mary against him, and in 1692 he was deprived of his proprietorship on the ground that he had suffered the colony to fall into disorder. Fletcher, the Governor of New York, was then appointed Governor of Pennsylvania. He soon got into disputes with the Assembly. They held that the old constitution and laws were still in force. while he contended that the forfeiture of the charter had made them void. They also refused the help which he required for the protection of New York against the Indians. In 1694 Penn so far recovered favor with the Court as to be restored to his proprietorship. In 1696 the Assembly drew up a fresh form of government, to which Penn assented. The principal changes were that the number of councillors and deputies was reduced by one-third, and that the Assembly was empowered to meet of its own freewill, without being summoned by the Governor. In 1699 Penn again went out, but in less than two years he was called back by a report that the proprietary governments were in danger of being abolished, and he never revisited the colony. During his stay disputes again broke out between the Province and the Territories, which had been reunited under Fletcher. The deputies from the Territories, not being able to carry some measures for the good of their own country, left the Assembly altogether. Penn endeavored to mediate, but without success, and after his departure the feud grew worse. In 1701 Penn granted a fresh charter, one of the clauses in which allowed the Territories, if they chose, to separate from the Province. Accordingly, in 1703 they did so, and became a distinct State, known afterwards as Delaware. Besides this dispute, other dissensions arose. Penn does not seem to have

been fortunate in his choice of a Governor. Evans, who became Governor in 1704, and his successor, Gookin, both quarreled with the Assembly. In 1710 Penn pathetically complained in a letter which he wrote to the colonists, that he could not "but think it hard measure that, while that has proved a land of freedom and flourishing, it should become to me, by whose means it was principally made a country, the cause of grief, trouble, and poverty." Being moreover embarrassed in his private affairs, in 1712 Penn proposed to sell his right as proprietor to the Crown. Just before the sale could be completed he was seized with apoplexy, and for the remaining six years of his life he was incapable of doing any business. Thus the transfer was never made, and the proprietorship was handed down to Penn's They took little interest in the colony. They caused more descendants. than one dispute by putting forward a claim to hold their lands free from taxation, a demand which was always resisted by the Assembly.

None of the colonies, except perhaps New York, was better off for natural advantages than Pennsylvania. The climate was a mean between that of New England and the southern colonies. Timber was plentiful, the soil was fertile, and the rivers offered easy means of carriage. Philadelphia, the capital, was the best laid out and handsomest town in the colonies. The inhabitants were of various races and religions. Besides the Quakers, who for a long time formed the greater part of the population, there were Swedes, Germans, and Welsh. As in New England, there seem to have been few very rich men or great landed proprietors. In this, and in the general mode of life among the settlers, Pennsylvania resembled New York and the New England colonies.



## CHAPTER XIV.

THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA AND THE SPANISH WAR.

IRGINIA and Georgia, the first and last of the English colonies in America, resemble one another in their origin. All the settlements that came between were either founded, like Maryland and Carolina, for the profit of the proprietors, or, like Pennsylvania and the New England colonies, as a refuge for a religious sect. Virginia and Georgia alone were established as homes for the poor and needy. In one point, however, they differed. Virginia was colonized by a company of merchants, who looked to their own gain as well as to the good of the

settlers. The founders of Georgia were benevolent men, who did not aim at any profit to themselves, but only at founding a home for those who had no means of livelihood in England. Georgia may also be likened to a still earlier class of settlements, those planned by Gilbert and Raleigh. For it was meant to serve, and it did serve, as a military outpost to guard the older colonies, especially South Carolina, against Spanish invasion. About 1730, some benevolent persons were struck by the evil state of English prisons. At that time men could be, and commonly were, imprisoned for debt. The prisons in which they were confined were shamefully managed. They were dens of filth, and no heed was given to the health of the prisoners. About that time also many wild and foolish schemes of speculation had been set on

foot, and had led to the ruin of many. Thus the debtors' prisons were unusually full, and their condition was worse than ever. One of the first to call attention to this was James Oglethorpe, a man of high birth and good education, an officer in the army, and a member of Parliament. From the outset of his public career, he devoted himself to bettering the lot of the wretched and helpless. By the account which he gave of the evil state of prisons, he got a committee of the House of Commons appointed, with himself as chairman, to inquire



JAMES OGLETHORPE.

into the matter. He was not content with lightening the sufferings of those unhappy debtors. He bethought him of some means whereby those who

could find no livelihood in England could be put in the way of earning their bread, and so be saved from debt. To found a colony specially fitted for such a class seemed the readiest cure for the evil. Moreover, Oglethorpe, being a good soldier and a patriotic man, thought that the same scheme might be turned to account as a check on the Spaniards, who, as we have seen, threatened the southern counties of Carolina.

In 1732, Oglethorpe and other benevolent men formed a company to carry out this plan. They obtained a charter and a grant of all the land between the rivers Savannah and Altamaha, to form a province called Georgia, in honor of the king. Trustees were appointed, with full power to manage the affairs of the colony. At first they were to appoint the Governor and other officers. After four years these appointments were to be made by the Crown. Laws were to be made by the company and approved of by the Privy Council. The settlers themselves were to have no share in the government. Lest the company should try to make profit out of their scheme, no member of it was to hold any paid office in the colony. All the arrangements kept in view the two main ends, to make Georgia both a fit settlement for needy men working with their own hands and a strong outpost against the Spaniards. Most of the settlers were to be poor people, released debtors and bankrupt tradesmen, and those who. having large families, were in receipt of parish relief. These were to be sent out at the expense of the company. But, beside these, the company were ready to receive settlers who might choose to go out at their own expense. Still they wished to make it specially a poor man's settlement. With this view they prohibited slavery, as likely to interfere with free labor and to give rich men an advantage. Besides, a revolt of the slaves would have been specially dangerous with neighbors like the Spaniards on the frontier. No one was to hold more than five hundred acres of land, and, in order to keep up the number of proprietors, no land was allowed to be sold, and, if a man left no son, his lot was to become the property of the company. The object of this rule was to ensure a sufficient number of men fit for service in war. For the same reason all the settlers were to be drilled as soldiers. As some of the settlers were likely to be of unsteady habits, no rum was to be imported. The company hoped to have among their settlers some German Protestants, many of whom had lately been driven from their homes by fierce persecution, and with this view a clause was inserted in the charter providing that all foreigners who settled in Georgia should have the same rights as English citizens. So, too, men of all religions, except Roman Catholics, were to enjoy equal rights. To guard against any dispute with its English neighbors, the colony was set free by the Crown from any right which Carolina might have claimed over the land south of the Savannah.

Oglethorpe was appointed Governor of the colony, with power to choose a site for a settlement, and to manage all public affairs. On the 16th of November, 1732, he sailed from Gravesend with a hundred and twenty emigrants. On the 13th of January they landed in Carolina, where they were kindly received. Oglethorpe went up the river Savannah to select a place for a settlement. He chose a piece of high ground, round which the river flowed in the shape of a horse-shoe. It was about ten miles from the sea, and commanded a view of the river to its mouth. This was an advantage, as there was always a danger of the settlement being attacked by the Spaniards from the sea. The town was to be called Savannah, after the river. At the same time Oglethorpe made an alliance with the chief of the Creeks, the most powerful Indian nation in that quarter. On the 1st of February the colonists arrived at Savannahi. The people of Carolina assisted them with supplies of food. In May, Oglethorpe held a conference with the Creeks. They promised not to meddle with the English settlers, and to let them occupy any land that they did not need for themselves. Presents were then exchanged; the Indians gave buckskins; Oglethorpe, guns, ammunition, cloth, and spirits.

Next year a band of German emigrants came over. They had been driven from Salzburg by a persecuting archbishop. Oglethorpe gave them their choice of land, and they settled about twenty miles from Savannah. They were well received both by English and Indians, and soon formed a prosperous settlement. In April, 1734, Oglethorpe returned to England, taking with him some of the Creek chiefs. The trustees now began to learn that men who had failed in England were not very likely to succeed in a colony. Accordingly they sent out some more German Protestants and a number of Scotch Highlanders. The latter, from their hardihood and warlike habits, were specially fitted for a colony which was likely to have to defend itself by arms. On his return to Georgia, Oglethorpe set to work to colonize the southern frontier. He planted a body of emigrants on an island at the mouth of the Altamaha, and called the settlement Frederica. This was intended to guard the colony against an attack from the south. The Highlanders were posted on the river sixteen miles inland. Another settlement called Augusta was founded two hundred and thirty miles up the river Savannah to guard the western frontier. Augusta and Frederica were both fortified, and other forts were erected near the mouth of the Altamaha.

In the meantime disputes had arisen at Savannah. Some of the settlers drew up a statement of their grievances, and laid it before the trustees. Their chief complaints were that Causton, whom Oglethorpe had left in charge of affairs, was tyrannical and unjust; that the colony could not thrive without the use of negroes; that the prohibition of rum was

injurious; that many of the settlers could not earn a livelihood; and that the state of the colony was so wretched that its inhabitants seized every opportunity of fleeing to Carolina. Some of these complaints seem to have been well founded. Canston's misconduct was so clear that he was removed from his office by Oglethorpe. The demand for rnm was supported by the statements that the water of the country was too unwholesome to be drunk by itself; that, as rum was the chief product of the West Indies, the prohibition stopped the trade with those islands, and that thus the Georgia settlers lost the best market for their goods. As for the negroes, the only respectable settlers, the Highlanders and the Germans, protested that slaves would be both needless and dangerous. Still there is no doubt that the other emigrants were less fitted for hard work, and the sight of the Carolina settlers living on the proceeds of slave labor may naturally have made them wish for the same relief. It was also true that many of the settlers had fled, but generally because Oglethorpe had deprived some of the most idle and worthless of their share of food from the public stores. if the grievances had been presented in a temperate and respectful way, they might have been considered; but those who took the chief part in complaining were lazy and dissolute, and mixed up their statements with violent and unjust abuse of Oglethorpe. Thus the trustees took little or

Oglethorpe soon had other troubles on his hands. Early in 1736, he no notice of them. sent an embassy to confer with the Spaniards about the boundaries of the colony, which were still unsettled. As the embassy did not return for some time, Oglethorpe became uneasy, and sailed to the south to inquire His Indian allies wished to go with him, but he would only take a small number, lest they should fall out with the Spaniards. An island which they touched at was named by the Indians Cumberland, in honor of the Duke of Cumberland, who had shown their chiefs much kindness when they were in England. Here, and at another island further south, Oglethorpe set up forts, calling them Forts St. Andrew and St. George. These places were not included in the territory of Georgia, and were occupied by Oglethorpe as military outposts against the Spaniards. In a few days Oglethorpe met the embassy returning with eivil messages from the Spaniards. In spite of this show of friendship, Oglethorpe soon had private information that the Spaniards were plotting against his colony. He feared that his Indian friends might attack the Spaniards, and thus give them a pretext for making war on Georgia. He took steps to prevent this by keeping a hoat constantly on guard upon the Altamaha, to prevent, if possible, any Indian from crossing. He then sent an embassy to the Spaniards, to tell them what he had done. At the same time he sent to Carolina for help both by sea and land, and fortified and victualled Frederica. For some time nothing was heard of the embassy. Alarmed at this, Oglethorpe sailed to the south. On reaching the frontier, he learnt that the Spaniards were advancing. They believed, as he afterwards found, that all the forces of the colony were at Frederica, and, accordingly, they were about to attack Fort St. George. Oglethorpe, however, fired his guns in such a way as to make the Spaniards suppose that a ship and a battery on land were saluting one another. Thus he tricked the Spaniards into the belief that fresh forces had come up, and they retreated in confusion. A few days later they sent an embassy which met Oglethorpe near Frederica. Their meeting was friendly. The Spaniards promised to make amends for some wrongs that they had done the Indians, and Oglethorpe at the same time agreed to withdraw his soldiers from Fort St. George. This he did, and stationed them instead on an island somewhat further north, which he named Amelia Island.

Things now were quiet enough for Oglethorpe to return to England. While he was there, the Spanish Ambassador presented a memorial to the English government, requesting that no more troops should be sent to Georgia, and that Oglethorpe should not be allowed to return thither. This request was of course disregarded, and in September, 1738, Oglethorpe went back, having raised a regiment in England for the defence of the colony. In October a mutiny broke out among his troops, caused, it was thought, by the intrigues of the Spaniards; but it was easily quelled. In the next summer Oglethorpe undertook a long and difficult journey into the Indian country, to see some of the chiefs and stop negotiations which he heard were going forward between the Indians and the Spaniards. For two hundred miles he saw neither house nor human being. When he reached the Indian settlements, the fame of his goodness and his friendship for the Indians had gone before him, and he was received with all kindness and hospitality. The Indians complained of wrongs done them by some traders from Carolina. Oglethorpe promised to make amends for these, and a treaty was arranged.

In this autumn the war between England and Spain, which had long seemed at hand, broke out. The Spaniards, like the English, forbade all foreign vessels to trade with their colonies. This law was broken by English merchants, and, in consequence, the Spanish guardships frequently stopped and searched English vessels. Many stories were afloat, some probably true, others certainly exaggerated, if not false, of the cruelties inflicted by Spanish officials on English sailors. One man in particular, named Jenkins, excited great public indignation by declaring that the Spaniards had cut off his ears. Besides this, the Spanish government demanded that the colony in Georgia should be removed, as it threatened the frontier of Florida. Walpole, then at the head of the ministry, did not think there was ground enough for war, but it was clear that both Parliament and the nation were against him, and that he would have to declare war, or to resign. He

loved the peace of his country well, but he loved his own power better, and yielded. In October, 1739, war was declared, and Oglethorpe received orders to annoy Florida. The first blow was struck by the Spaniards. In December they fell upon the force at Amelia Island, but retreated after killing two Highlanders. Oglethorpe, though ill-supplied with arms and ammunition, thought that his best policy was to act on the offensive, and march boldly on St. Augustine, the chief Spanish fort. He could depend on the Indians, and many of the settlers were able and ready for service. His first step was to send out a small force, which captured a Spanish outpost called Picolata. It was important to hasten proceedings, as the English navy was



A SWAMP IN FLORIDA.

now blockading Cuba, the chief Spanish island in the West Indies. and thus the Spaniards in Florida were less likely to receive any help. Unluckily, the Government of Carolina were slow in sending Oglethorpe the help that he asked for. In May he determined to set forth without it, and with his own regiment, numbering four hundred, some of the Georgia militia, and a body of Indians, he marched into the Spanish territory. At first, things went well with him. captured three small forts, and met with no serious opposition till he reached St. Augustine. This was a strongly fortified place, and well furnished with artillery. The num-

ber of men in it was two thousand, about the same as the whole English land force. Oglethorpe resolved on a joint attack by sea and land. But the commodore commanding the English ships had effectually secured their harbor; so that plan was abandoned. Oglethorpe then attempted to bombard the place, but without success. The Spaniards then made a sortie, and fell upon a small force that Oglethorpe had left in one of the captured forts. If Oglethorpe's orders had been obeyed, his troops would have avoided an engagement, but they despised the enemy, and rashly allowed themselves to be surrounded, and were nearly all killed or taken. About the same time Oglethorpe lost some of his Indian allies. One of them thought to please him by bringing him the head of a Spaniard. Oglethorpe indignantly ordered him out of his sight. The Indians took offence at this, and many of them departed. It was soon seen that the English fleet could not keep the Spaniards

from bringing in supplies from the sea, and that any attempt at a blockade would be useless. Oglethorpe then resolved to try his first plan of an assault, and made all preparations. But before the time came, the fleet withdrew, driven away, as their commanders said, by fear of hurricanes. The

Carolina troops, who had now come up, were but little help, and some of them, even officers, deserted. Many of Oglethorpe's own men were sick. It was soon clear that the attack must be abandoned, and in June Oglethorpe retreated. Though he had failed in his main object, yet his march probably kept the Spaniards in check, and withheld them for some time from any active operations against Georgia or Carolina.



LOOK-OUT.

In the antumn of 1740, England sent out one of the finest fleets that she had

ever put on the sea, to act against the Spaniards in the West Indies. There were thirty ships of the line and eighty-five other vessels, with fifteen thousand seamen and a land force of twelve thousand soldiers on board. luckily, Admiral Vernon, who commanded the fleet, and General Wentworth, who commanded the land force, could not agree, and nothing was done. In the following July an attack was made on Cuba, but it was an utter failure, and the Spaniards were left free to employ all their forces against the English settlements. Accordingly, early in 1742 they made ready for an invasion. The woods, held as they were by Indians friendly to the English, were a sufficient guard on the land side. Thus the Spaniards could make their attack only from the sea. As they could not safely leave a strong place like Frederica in their rear, it was necessary as a first step to take it, and thus it became the key of the country. St. Simons, the island on which Frederica stood, was about twelve miles long and from two to five miles broad. Frederica was on the west side facing the mainland, and the only approach to it was a road running for two miles between a forest and a marsh, and so narrow that only two men could go abreast. On every other side Frederica was protected by thick woods.

On the 5th of July the Spaniards began by attacking St. Simons, a fort on the east side of the island. They had a fleet of thirty-six ships, but were beaten off by the batteries, after an engagement which lasted four hours. Oglethorpe, however, doubting whether St. Simons could be defended, destroyed it, lest it should fall into the enemy's hands, and collected his whole force in Frederica. Two days later his Indian scouts brought news that the Spaniards were two miles from town. Oglethorpe at once marched out at

the head of his light troops, fell upon the Spanish vanguard and routed them, taking two prisoners with his own hand. He pursued the Spaniards for about a mile, and then halted till his regular troops had come up. These he posted in the woods, and returned to Frederica to prepare for defence. The Spaniards marched forward and halted within a hundred yards of the main ambush, who opened a heavy fire upon them. In spite of the disgraceful flight of the larger part of the English force, the Spaniards were utterly defeated with a loss of three hundred, besides those who fled to the woods and were there killed by the Indians. The Spaniards, having failed by land, tried an attack by sea, but were beaten off by the guns of the fort. Nevertheless, the English were far from safe. Their stock of food was scanty, and if this and the smallness of their force became known, the enemy were almost sure to return to the attack. The English, therefore, were much alarmed when they found that a Frenchman who had joined them with some volunteers had fled to the Spaniards. In this strait Oglethorpe bribed a Spanish prisoner to take a letter professedly to the Frenchman, but really meant to fall into the hands of the Spanish commander. This letter told the Frenchman that he was to be rewarded for misleading the Spaniards as to the English force, and so tempting them to rush into destruction. The Spaniards fell into the trap, and believed that the Frenchman was really a friend to the English. Oglethorpe had also



METHOD OF CARRYING A SHELL,

said in his letter, to alarm the Spaniards, that he expected some ships in a day or two. Just at this time, by good fortune, some English ships appeared in the distance. This confirmed the Spaniards in their distrust, and they at once embarked hastily, leaving their fire-arms and ammunition behind them. On their way back they attacked some of the English forts, but were beaten off, and then retreated into their own territories. On the 14th of July a public thanksgiving was

celebrated in Georgia for the deliverance of the colony. After their defeat no further attempt was made by the Spaniards to molest the English settlements.

Next year Oglethorpe sailed to England, and never again visited the colony that he had founded and saved. But his memory was long held in honor there, and a city and county were called after him, and kept alive his name. Of all the founders of American colonies, from Raleigh onwards, none deserve such high honor as Oglethorpe. Penn labored unsparingly and wisely, but it was for a sect to which he belonged, and for a colony

which bore his name. Winthrop and his friends left their homes and gave up all their hopes of prosperity and greatness in England, but it was to become the rulers of a new State and to win a refuge from tyranny for themselves and their children. Oglethorpe, urged by a yet nobler and more unselfish spirit, overcame the temptations of riches and high birth, cast behind him the pleasures of the world and forsook the society of friends, to spend the best years of his life in toil and hardship, with no hope of earthly reward beyond the fickle gratitude of those whom he served.

After Oglethorpe's departure, the trustees placed the government in the hands of a President and four assistants. They were to hold four courts a year, to manage the affairs of the colony and to try law-suits, but they might not spend money without the consent of the trustees. It was soon found that some of the restraints placed on the settlers were injurious to the colony. In the first seven years Parliament granted ninety-four thousand pounds towards the advancement of the settlement, and fifteen hundred emigrants were sent out from England, but not more than half of these stayed in Georgia. The trustees thought that the restriction on the sale of land had led many of the settlers to leave the colony, and accordingly they Still the colony did not thrive. Nearly all the inhabitants. except the Germans and the Highlanders, were idle and discontented. In 1752 the trustees, dissatisfied with the result, gave up their charter to the A government was established, modelled on that of South Carolina. The prohibition of slavery and of the importation of rum was done away with, and Georgia became in every respect like the other southern colonies.



## CHAPTER XV.

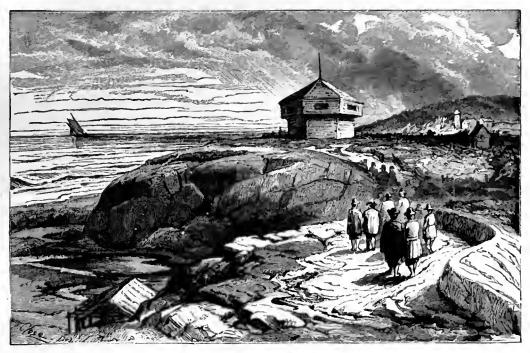
THE CONQUEST OF CANADA AND OF THE OHIO VALLEY

SIDES Canada, the French had another colony in North America. This was Louisiana, a fertile tract of land at the mouth of the Mississippi. In 1673, Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, starting from Canada, had penetrated into the countries now forming the State of Wisconsin, and had journeyed some way down the Mississippi. A few years later, La Salle, a French fur-trader, descended the Mississippi to the sea. In 1684 he persuaded the French government to found a colony

at the mouth of the river. He then explored the whole valley of the Mississippi; but, before he could bring back the report of his discoveries, he was murdered by two of his own followers. The position of this southern French colony threatened the English settlements with not a little danger. If once the French could connect Canada and Louisiana by a continuous range of forts along the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi, they would completely surround the English settlements. They would form, as it has been described, a bow, of which the English colonies were the string. Even if these did not annoy the English settlers, they would withhold them from William III. saw the danger of this, and spreading towards the west. planned a scheme for placing a number of French Protestants on the Mississippi as a check on the French settlements there. This, however, came to nothing. Like Canada, Louisiana was, in its early years, unprosperous. But about 1730 it began to flourish, and in a few years it contained seven thousaud inhabitants. Measured by actual numbers, the French colonies seemed no match for the English. In 1740 the former contained only fifty-two thousand Europeans, the latter nearly a million. But their alliance with the Indians, and the strength of their position, made the French dangerous. Moreover they had the advantage of being all under a single governor.

The two French colonies were separated by the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi. Between the Ohio and Virginia lay dense forests and a range of mountains, the Alleghanies, rising at some points to four thousand feet, and in few places to less than three thousand. The French and English both claimed this territory, the former on the strength of Marquette's and La Salle's discoveries, the latter by a treaty made with the Mohawks in 1744. It seemed doubtful, however, whether the lands in question really belonged to the Mohawks, and also whether the treaty gave the

English more than the east side of the river. But in a dispute of such importance between two nations who had been lately at war, neither side was likely to be very scrupulous as to the grounds of its claims. Before 1749 no regular settlements had been formed by the English beyond the Alleghanies, and the mountains had only been crossed by traders. But in that year a small body of rich men in England, called the Ohio Company, obtained from the king a grant of six hundred thousand acres of land in the Ohio valley. This, as probably was expected, soon brought the dispute to an issue. In 1752 the French governor proceeded to connect Canada and Lonisiana by a line of forts. Thereupon, Dinwiddie, the governor of Virginia, sent a com-



THE FRENCH FORT.

missioner to warn the French commander that he was trespassing, and to find out the real state of affairs there. For this task he chose George Washington. He was twenty-one years old, of good family, brought up as a land-surveyor. That he stood high in the governor's esteem is shown by his holding a commission as major in the Virginia militia, and being chosen, in spite of his youth, for this difficult service. After a wearisome journey through the wilderness, Washington reached the spot where the Alleghany and Monongahela meet to form the Ohio. These rivers here run in a west-erly direction. About ten miles further up, the Monongahela is joined by another river of some size, the Youghioghany. Besides this, two smaller streams rise in the land between the Alleghany and the Monongahela, and

fall one into each river. Thus the fork of land between the two rivers was strongly guarded on every side by water. Its position was in other ways suitable for a fort. Washington was well received by the Indians, who had already met the French. The French they regarded as trespassers, while they do not seem to have suspected the English of being anything more than traders. The French fort lay a hundred and twenty miles beyond the meeting of the streams. On Washington's arrival the French commander received him with great civility, but he professed to have no power to make terms, and said that any application must be made to the governor of Canada; he himself was only acting under orders, and could not withdraw. On his return Dinwiddie at once called together the Assembly and laid the matter before them. Some of them questioned the English claim to the lands, but at length they voted ten thousand pounds for the encouragement and protection of the settlers in the west. At the same time Dinwiddie wrote to the governors of the other colonies to ask for help. North Carolina alone answered to the call, and voted twelve thousand pounds. There were now in the colonies three classes of soldiers. I. There were the militia of each colony. H. There were the colonial regular troops, raised by each colony at its own expense. These, like the militia, were commanded by officers appointed by the governor of the colony. III. There were the king's Americans; regiments raised in the colonies, but commanded by officers commissioned by the king. These last were dependent solely on the crown, and had no connection with any colony in particular. The crown also had the right of appointing superior officers, whose command extended over the first and second, as well as over the third class. It does not seem to have been clearly settled whether the colonial officers took equal rank with the king's officers, and this question gave rise to many disputes and to much inconvenience. The Virginia force consisted, beside the militia, of six companies of a hundred men each, of which Washington was lieutenant-colonel. To quicken their zeal and to get recruits, Dinwiddie promised a grant of two hundred thousand acres of land on the Ohio, to be divided among the troops, and to be free of all rent for fifteen years. This also was to serve as a standing military outpost. In April, Washington set out towards the Ohio, with three companies. He sent a small party in advance, who began to build a fort at the meeting of the rivers. The French surrounded this fort, compelled the occupants to retire, and took possession of the place, which they strengthened and called Fort Duquesne. News of this reached Washington when he was about ninety miles off. The French force was believed to be much stronger than his; nevertheless he decided to push on and take up a position on the banks of the Monongahela. Soon after, he learned from the Indians that a small force was marching towards him. On May 27th he set off with forty soldiers and some Indians, and the next day he met the enemy. It is uncertain which side began the engagement. After a short skirmish, the French force, which numbered about fifty, was defeated; the commander, Jumonville, and ten others were killed, and twenty-two cap-The French have represented this as a treacherous onslaught made on men who had come on a peaceful embassy. Washington, on the other hand, declared that the French evidently approached with hostile intentions. The French also represented that Jumonville was murdered during a confer-This was undoubtedly false, and throws discredit on their whole story. After the fight, Washington, finding that the whole French force would be upon him, entrenched himself at a spot called Great Meadow, some fifty miles from Fort Duquesne. On the 2d of July he was attacked by a force of about seven hundred men. The engagement lasted from four in the morning till eight at night. The French then demanded a parley, Washington, finding that he could not hold his ground, surrendered the fort, on condition that he might carry off all his effects except his artillery. He also promised not to occupy that place, or any other beyond the Alleghany Mountains, for a year. In spite of his retreat, Washington's conduct was highly approved of, and he and his officers received a vote of thanks from the Virginian Assembly. Dinwiddie was for sending out at once another and a larger expedition; but it was soon clear that, before anything effective could be done, snow and frost would make the mountains impassable.

During this same summer, by the recommendation of the English government, deputies from the different colonies met at Albany, to discuss a general scheme of defence. Representatives attended from New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. At the suggestion of Shirley, the governor of Massachusetts, they discussed a scheme for a union of all the colonies. The author of this scheme was Benjamin Franklin, a native of Boston, who had emigrated in his youth to Pennsylvania. He was by trade a printer. By his energy and ability he had become one of the most influential men in his own colony. In Philadelphia he had already introduced many useful improvements, an academy, a public library, a fire brigade, and a board for paving and cleaning the streets. He now proposed that the colonies should apply to Parliament for an Act uniting them all under one government. The separate colonial governments were to remain as before, but there was to be one federal government over them all. There was to be a president appointed by the king, and a board of representatives elected by the people of each colony. The number of representatives from each colony was to be proportionate to its contribution to the general treasury. But the scheme was unpopular both in England and in the colonies. The English government feared that it would make the colonies too strong, while the Americans disliked it as increasing the authority of the crown, and interfering with the different colonial assemblies. Thus the scheme fell to the ground. At the same time Franklin proposed that two fresh colonies should be formed in the disputed territory. This, too, came to nothing.

In 1755 a force under the command of General Braddock was sent out from England to protect the American frontier. The Virginia regiment had been broken up into six separate companies. By this change Washington had been reduced from the rank of lieutenant-colonel to that of a captain. Disgusted at this, he had resigned his commission. He was now asked to serve as a volunteer with Braddock, and gladly accepted the offer. outset of the campaign Braddock was hindered by the misconduct of the contractors, who failed to supply the wagons that they had promised. difficulty was overcome by the activity and ability of Franklin. On the 9th of July, 1755, Braddock, with twelve hundred picked men, forded the Monongaliela and entered the valley of the Ohio. Franklin had reminded him of the danger of a march in the woods, and the fear of ambuscades, but Braddock scorned the warning, as coming from a colonist and a civilian. Just after the whole force had crossed the Monongahela, they heard a quick and heavy fire in their front. The two foremost detachments fell back, and the whole force was in confusion. The officers, conspicuous on horseback, were picked off by riflemen. Braddock had five horses killed under him, and was at length mortally wounded. The officers behaved with great courage, and strove to rally their troops, but in vain. The men lost all sense of discipline, fired so wildly that they did more harm to their own side than to the enemy, and then fled, leaving their artillery, provisions, and baggage. The colonial troops alone behaved well; Washington himself had two horses shot under him, and four bullets through his coat, and yet was unhurt. The total loss in killed and wounded was over seven hundred, while that of the enemy did not amount to one hundred. Braddock died two days afterwards, and was buried secretly, lest his body should be insulted by the Indians.

In the next summer Washington was appointed colonel of the Virginia forces, including the militia and the colonial regulars. Few commanders have ever had a harder task set before them. The frontier was attacked by bands of Indians, urged on by the French. Living, as the Virginians did, each on his own separate plantation, such attacks were specially dangerous. Washington wished them to collect together in small settlements, but his advice does not seem to have been followed. The rich valley of the Shenandoah, the furthest land on which the English colonists had settled, seemed likely to be wholly deserted. Meanwhile the defences of the frontier were in a state of utter weakness and confusion. Washington was ill supplied with stores and men. Desertions became so frequent that at one time nearly one-half of the militia was employed in capturing the other half. No one clearly knew what were the limits of Washington's power, or how far he had any authority over the forces sent out from other colonies. The neighboring governments, too, were backward in sending help. The governors were for the most part zealous, but the assemblies were so jealous of anything like arbitrary power that they were more anxious to restrain their governors than to further the common cause. In Pennsylvania, which with Virginia was in the greatest danger, the governor and assembly could not agree about taxation. The assembly were willing to grant a supply; but

the governor, in obedience to the proprietors, insisted that the proprietary lands should be free from taxation. To this the assembly naturally objected, and no money could be raised. Moreover, each colony cared only for the defence of its own frontier. Even among the Virginians themselves this feeling prevailed, and Washington was more than once hindered by the anxiety of his officers to guard their own plantations.

On the northern frontier matters were not much better. In 1755 three expeditions were prepared against Canada. The first was planned altogether by the Massachusetts government. Its object was to recover the country between the peninsula of Acadia and the St. Law-



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

rence, which the English claimed under the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and which now is called New Brunswick. For this a force of seven hundred men was sent out in May. The French forts were weakly defended, and by June the New Englanders found themselves masters of the whole territory south of the St. Lawrence.

When Acadia was given up to the English in 1712, the French inhabitants took the oath of allegiance to the English government. At the same time they asked not to be forced in time of war to take up arms against the French. No formal agreement was made, but it seems to have been understood that they would be allowed to stand neutral. At the capture of Fort Beaujeu, the chief French fortress taken by the New Englanders, three hundred Acadians were found among the garrison. The Acadians them-

selves declared that they had been impressed against their will by the French commander. The English government, however, was afraid to leave a people of doubtful loyalty in a place of such importance, and resolved to banish them in a body. This may have been necessary, but it was undoubtedly carried out with needless harshness. At five days' notice, more than ten thousand persons were banished from their homes. Nothing was done by the English in authority to lighten this blow, much to increase it. Families were torn asunder, and a prosperous and peaceful country reduced to a wilderness. Some of the Acadians escaped to Canada, but most were shipped to the English colonies, where many were left to beg

their bread among people of a different race and speech.

Besides the expedition from Massachusetts, two others were made, which had been planned by Braddock before he set out himself. One force under General Johnson was to occupy Ticonderoga, an important place on Lake St. George, hitherto neglected by the French. Dieskan, the French commander in Canada, marched out against Johnson. At first the French had the best of it, but the militia and the Indian allies could not stand against the English artillery; Dieskau was compelled to retreat, and in the retreat was dangerously wounded. The English, however, failed to follow up their success, and allowed the French to occupy Ticonderoga. The other force, that under Shirley, contented itself with fortifying Oswego, a place on the frontier of New York. Hitherto hostilities had been confined to America. but in the next year war was formally declared between England and France. One hundred and fifteen thousand pounds was sent out by the English government for the defence of the colonies, and preparations were made for a great American campaign. But, partly through the slackness of the various colonial governments, partly through an outbreak of small-pox among the troops, nothing whatever was done. Montcalm, Dieskau's successor, was a brave and skilful soldier. With five thousand men he marched against Oswego, and took it. This place was on the territory of the Mohawks, and they had looked on its fortification with jealousy. Montcalm, to assure them that the French had no designs against them, destroyed the fort. Next year things went on much as before. Montcalm captured Fort William Henry, an English stronghold on the upper waters of the Hudson. In this year a dispute arose between the English commander-in-chief, Lord Loudon, and two of the colonial governments, those of New York and Massachusetts. The colonists denied that the Act of Parliament which provided for the billeting of soldiers was binding on the colonies, and declared that special leave must be granted by the various colonial governments. New York soon gave way. Massachusetts was so obstinate that Lord Loudon threatened to march all his troops into Boston. The Massachusetts government then came to a compromise. It passed an Act ordering that the soldiers should have the accommodation that they needed. Thus, while the colonists yielded, they implied, by passing this law, that the Act of Parliament did not bind them.

The ill-fortune of the English arms was not confined to America. In Europe they were defeated by sea and land. The spirit of the nation seemed utterly broken. But a mighty change was at hand. In 1758, Pitt became secretary of state, with a strong and popular ministry at his back. He breathed fresh life into English forces in every quarter. Nowhere was the change more felt than in America. Pitt, beyond all statesmen then living, understood the importance of the American colonies, and knew how to deal with their inhabitants. He ordered that the colonial troops should be supplied with munitions at the expense of the English government. At the same time he won the hearts of the Americans by an order that the colonial officers should hold equal rank with those commissioned by the Crown. He also planned an expedition against Fort Duquesne. Washington had repeatedly urged the necessity of this, declaring that the colonies would never be safe so long as that post was held by the French. The expedition was somewhat hindered by the commander, General Forbes, who, instead of marching along the road already made by Braddock, insisted on cutting a fresh one, more direct, but over a more difficult country. It was believed in America that he was persuaded to this by the Pennsylvanians, to whom the new road was a lasting gain. An advanced detachment of about seven hundred men shared the fate of Braddock's army. But, when the main body of six thousand men advanced, the French, finding themselves too weak to hold the fort, retreated. Thus it was decided that England, and not France, was to possess the valley of the Ohio and the rich territory of the west. The name of Fort Duquesne was changed to Pittsburgh, in honor of the statesman to whom the colonists owed this great gain.

Two other expeditions were sent out this year; the first against Cape Breton, the second against Ticonderoga. These were warmly supported by the colonists. Massachusetts sent seven thousand men, Connecticut five thousand, and New Hampshire three thousand. The whole force sent against Louisburg, the chief stronghold in Cape Breton, consisted of four-teen thousand men. Against this the French had little more than three thousand. The defeat of the French fleet by Admiral Hawke, off Brest, made it impossible to send help to Canada, and Louisburg surrendered. This gave the English possession of the whole island of Cape Breton. The other expedition was less successful. In a fruitless attempt against Ticonderoga, General Abercrombie lost two thousand men, and retreated. This failure was to some extent made up for by the capture of Fort Frontenac, a strong place on the west side of Lake Ontario. The next year, three armies

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were sent against Canada. One under General Wolfe was to ascend the St. Lawrence, and attack Quebec. A second was to march against Ticonderoga, and then to descend the St. Lawrence, and join Wolfe. to attack Niagara and Montreal, and then, if possible, to join the other



WOLFE'S MONUMENT, QUEBEC.

The two latter forces failed to join Wolfe, who was then left to attack Quebec single-handed. Quebec stands on a rock over the St. Lawrence, and just above the junction of that river with the St. Charles. Thus it is placed in a fork of the two rivers, and being guarded on three sides by water, can only be attacked from the north-west. To reach it on that side, Wolfe would have to cross the St. Lawrence and to scale its north bank, which is lofty and precipitous. Another river, the Montmorency, joins the St. Lawrence about six miles below Quebec. French force under Montcalm was stationed between the Montmorency and the St. Charles. The position of the town seemed to defy an attack, and even the fearless heart of Wolfe sank. With little hope of success, he crossed the St. Lawrence below its meeting with the Montmorency, and attacked Montcalm, but was beaten back, partly through the eagerness of his vanguard, who rushed forward before the main body could cross the Moutmorency to support them. As a last resource Wolfe resolved to cross the river above Quebec, and to attack the town from the north-west. The stream was rapid, the landing difficult, and the precipice above the river could only be climbed by one narrow path. Nevertheless, the English army crossed in the night, and safely reached the heights above the river. So desperate did this attempt seem that, when Montcalm heard of it, he imagined that it was only a feint to draw him from his post. When he learned his error, he at once marched by the city and made ready for battle. After a fierce engagement, in which Wolfe was killed and Montcalm mortally wounded, the French were defeated. The battle decided the fate of Quebec. Montcalm, when told that he had but a few hours to live, replied that it was best so, as he should escape seeing Quebec surrendered. No attempt was made to defend the place, and it was given up to the English. who garrisoned it with five thousand men. In the next campaign, the whole energies of the French were devoted to the recovery of Quebec. Sickness reduced the garrison to three thousand. Nevertheless, when the French army appeared, Murray, the English commander, marched out, and engaged them on the same ground on which Wolfe had triumphed. This time the French were successful, and the English troops retreated to the city with a loss of a thousand men. The French then proceeded to bombard the place. Fortunately the river, which was usually blocked with ice till late in the spring, that year became open unusually early, and the English fleet was able to sail up and relieve the city. The French now fell back upon Montreal, their only important stronghold left. A force of more than ten thousand men appeared before the place; Montreal surrendered, and the rest of Canada soon followed.

In the meantime the southern colonies had become engaged in a war with their Indian allies. The Cherokees, the most powerful and warlike of the southern tribes, had been dissatisfied with their treatment by the English, and, being pressed by want of food, had plundered some settlements on the Virginia frontier. Hostilities followed, in which some Cherokee chiefs and some Carolina settlers were slain. Lyttleton, the governor of South Carolina, demanded the surrender of one Cherokee for every Englishman killed. The Indians refused, and Lyttleton declared war on them. They then sent messengers to excuse what they had done, and to offer presents. Lyttleton not only refused to hear them, but arrested them. The Cherokee chiefs thereupon signed a treaty, promising to surrender twenty-four of their nation, and allowing Lyttleton to keep his prisoners

till this was done. But the Cherokee nation afterwards disclaimed the treaty, and declared that it had been made without their authority. Soon after, an English soldier who had charge of the hostages was killed by them. The soldiers in revenge killed the hostages. War now broke out, and the English invaded and desolated the Cherokee country. At the same time the Cherokees besieged and captured Fort London, an English fort on the Tennessee. In a spirit of rude justice they put to death twenty-seven of the prisoners, including the commander, that being the number of the ambassadors seized by Lyttleton. The rest they carried off as captives. During 1760 and 1761, the English wasted the Cherokee country, but failed to strike any decisive blow. In September, 1761, however, the Cherokees, wearied out, sued for peace, and the war ended.

The peace of Paris in 1762 completely overthrew the French power in America. Before the terms of peace were settled, doubts had arisen among English statesmen whether it would be best to hold Canada, or to give it back to France, keeping instead Guadaloupe, an island in the West Indies, which had been taken by England from France, in the course of the war. Some thought that it was well to have French settlements on the frontier, as a check on the English colonists. Pitt, by his anxiety for the conquest of the Ohio Valley, had disclaimed any such ungenerous idea. colonists themselves wished to be relieved from the duty of guarding a wide frontier. This view prevailed, and Canada and all Louisiana east of the Mississippi became English possessions. The new territory was divided into three provinces, Canada, and East and West Florida, the former to the north of Massachusetts, the two latter to the south of Georgia. These latter must not be confounded with the state which afterwards bore the name of Florida. The whole territory to the west of the Ohio was to be left unoccupied, partly to conciliate the natives, partly, it was thought, from dread of the rapidly growing strength of the colonies.

The English were not suffered to hold their new possessions in the west undisturbed. In 1763 a number of the Indian tribes, headed by Pontiae, a distinguished warrior of the Ottawa nation, took up arms. They destroyed most of the settlements in the Ohio Valley, massacred more than a hundred traders, and drove five hundred families to take refuge in the woods. The two strongest English forts, Detroit and Fort Pitt, were besieged, and were for a while in serious danger, but the garrisons held out bravely. The English were slow in sending help. Maryland and Virginia came forward readily, but Pennsylvania, as in the French war, was backward. As soon as the English forces marched against them, the enemy gave way. Partly from necessity, and partly by the advice of a French officer who had not yet departed, the Indians sued for peace, and the English again held the eastern bank of the Ohio in safety.

## CHAPTER XVI

GENERAL VIEW OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES.

eFORE going further, it will be well to take a general view of the thirteen colonies whose origin we have traced. By 1750 the whole population, not counting negroes, amounted to about a million and a quarter. Certain general points of likeness, as we have seen, ran through the institutions of all the different colonies. All of them had governments which were, to some extent, modeled on that of the mother country. In all, the citizens retained their English rights of electing their own representatives and being tried by juries of their

own countrymen. But, in spite of these points of likeness, the colonies were marked off from one another by great and manifold differences. Roughly speaking, we may say that the colonies fell into two great groups, the Northern and the Scuthern: the former taking in those north of Maryland, the latter Maryland and those beyond it. This difference was partly due to climate, and partly to the sources from which the first settlers had been drawn. The latter cause has been already mentioned. The climate and soil of the South were suited to the cultivation of rice and tobaceo, crops which require little skill on the part of the husbandman. Moreover, the heat and the unwholesome air of the South, especially in the rice swamps of Carolina, make it difficult for Europeans to work there. Thus slave labor became the usual means of tillage in the South. The climate of the Northern colonies, on the other hand, needed a system of mixed farming, which requires intelligence and care, and for which slaves therefore are unfit. Thus the class of yeomanry and peasant farmers, who formed the bulk of the population in the North, were almost unknown in the South. There was also a wide difference in religion between the Northern and Southern colonies. In all the Southern colonies the Church of England was established by law. Its clergy enjoyed tithes and glebes, and the majority of the people belonged to it. The Northern colonies, on the other hand, were for the most part founded by men actively hostile to the English Church, and they kept more or less of the character with which they had started. While such differences as these existed, it seemed unlikely that the colonies could ever be combined under a single government. Two other things helped to make this more difficult. The original grants of land had been drawn up so carelessly that there was searcely a colony which had not

had disputes about boundaries with its neighbors, disputes which had sometimes led to actual violence. Moreover, the populations of the various colonies differed widely in size. We have seen how injurious such a difference was to the confederation of the New England colonies. If it was impossible to found a firm and lasting union between four colonies so like in their origin and character, because of that one drawback, how much more would it be so with thirteen colonies differing in religion, climate, character, and to some extent in race. Schemes for union had been at different times suggested, but none had got over this difficulty. If the large colonies were allowed any superiority on account of their greater size, then the independence of the smaller colonies would be endangered. If all took equal rank, the larger colonies might fairly complain that they bore more than an equal share of the burden without any corresponding gain.

The relation of the colonies generally to the mother country may be, to some extent, seen from what has gone before. Scarcely any had altogether



avoided disputes with the English government, but nowhere, except perhaps in Massachusetts after the Restoration, had these disputes ever seemed to threaten separation. Various Acts of Parliament were passed. forbidding the colonists to make certain articles for themselves, lest they should interfere with the manufactures of the mother country. But neither these nor the navigation laws, though they sounded harsh, seem to have been felt as a serious grievance. The navigation laws were for the most part set at nought, and few attempts were made on the part of the Custom House officers to enforce them. Sir Robert Walpole, it is said, even admitted that it was well to connive at American snuggling, since of the money made in the colonies the

greater part was sure to find its way to England. The restrictions on manufactures were no real hardship, as it was cheaper for the Americans to import articles from England than to make them for themselves. In a country where land is cheap and fertile, and where therefore any man of moderate industry can make his livelihood as a peasant farmer, it is impossible to get artisans without paying much higher wages than are given in a country like

England, where land is costly. Thus the colonists could not at that time make articles so cheap as those manufactured in England. In fact, as John Adams, one of the ablest American statesmen, said, America and Europe were two worlds, one fitted for manufacture, the other for production, and each made to supply the wants of the other. The greatest grievance which the colonists had against England was the character of the governors sent out. Too many of them were men of evil reputation, ruined at home, and looking upon their colonial governments merely as means of retrieving their fortunes. Nothing interfered more with the friendly relations between England and America than the fact that the home government depended on these men for most of its information about the colonies.

Slavery, as I have already said, was one of the great leading points of difference between the Northern and Southern colonies. By the middle of the eighteenth century slavery had reached such dimensions in the Southern colonies as to be a serious source of uncasiness. In Virginia the number of negroes was two to every three white men. In South Carolina the numbers were equal. The injurious effect on the industry and social life of the Southern colonies was already felt. When once slavery becomes prevalent, labor is looked down upon as a badge of inferiority, and the existence of a class of respectable free laborers becomes impossible. This was from an early time the case in the South. There were other evils attendant on the It bred up a set of men whom a Virginia writer describes as "beings called overseers—a most abject, unprincipled race." The young planter grew up surrounded by slaves, and learned from his very cradle to be arbitrary and self-willed, indifferent to the feelings of others, and accustomed to deal with those who knew no law but his word. In the North the evils of slavery were less felt, but nevertheless they existed. In 1763 the proportion of negroes to the whole population of New England was only one in fifty. But there, just as in the South, they were treated as an inferior race, and debarred from equal rights. In Massachusetts a negro who struck a white man was liable to be sold as a slave out of the colony. Marriages between white persons and negroes were unlawful, and the clergyman who performed the service was liable to a fine of fifty pounds. No negro might be in the streets of Boston after nine at night. In New York, in 1712, an alarm was raised, apparently without foundation, of a negro plot to burn the city. The supposed conspirators were apprehended, and nineteen of them put to death.

Throughout all the colonies there was abundant prosperity, but little luxury; enough of the necessities, but few of the superfluities, of life. Owing to the abundance of unoccupied country and the consequent cheapness of land, there were scarcely any tenant farmers, and, except the Southern slaveholders, scarcely any large landed proprietors. The plainness of

life is well illustrated in letters written from England by Benjamin Franklin to his wife. He tells her that he is sending home table-linen, carpets, and other such articles, as being far superior to any that could be got in America, and he dwells on the ordinary furniture of an English breakfast-table as something remarkably luxurious. Indeed, it would seem from his letters that table-cloths were not generally used in America at breakfast. roughness and plainness was mainly due to the cheapness of land. every man could become a farmer, few cared to work as artisans. Moreover, in a young country, all the labor that can be got is needed for bringing the land into cultivation, building houses, making roads, and the like, and little is left for things not absolutely needful. Another result of the cheapness of land was that men were not withheld from early marriages by fear of want, and thus the population increased far more rapidly than it does in old countries.

In one point the Northern colonies from the very first were in advance, not only of the Southern, but of most countries. This was the attention paid to education. In all the New England colonies, provision was made for the maintenance of government schools. In all forms of intellectual and literary activity the Northern States, and especially Massachusetts, took the lead. In 1638 a college was founded at Cambridge in Massachusetts, partly by public funds, partly by private liberality. This was called Harvard College, after its chief benefactor, John Harvard. In Virginia, as we have seen, a college was founded about 1690. Yale College, in Connecticut, came into being in 1701, and by 1762 there were six colleges, all, except that in Virginia, in the northern colonies. Yet, in spite of the spread of education, there were in 1720 no booksellers' shops south of Boston, but only stationers' shops, where common school-books could be bought. At Charlestown, however, where there was the most educated and polished society to be found in the South, a public library was started in 1700. By the middle of the century these institutions had sprung up throughout the colonies, and became important as means of spreading knowledge. The first American Another Boston newspaper was the Boston News Letter, started in 1704. paper appeared in 1719, and one at Philadelphia at the same time. usual in a new country where nearly every one is pressing on to make a livelihood by farming or trade, and where there is little leisure for reading, the colonies had not, before they became independent, produced many writers of In the seventeenth century there were in New England a great number of writers on divinity, many of whom played important parts on the Independent side in the great controversy between that sect and the Presbyterians. Few of their works have any lasting interest or value. Besides these a few books were written on the history of the various colonies. By far the best of these books is Stith's History of Virginia, published in 1747.

author was a Virginia clergyman, and had access to the private records of the Virginia Company. His book is clear and accurate, and for style it may take rank with the best English writers of that day. Unluckily it does not come down further than the dissolution of the Company. Hubbard's History of the Indian Wars is a minute record of the war with King Philip, marred to some extent by violent prejudice against the natives. Of all American writers during the period through which we have gone, the greatest was Jonathan Edwards. He was born in 1703, and died in 1758. He was the son of an Independent minister in Connecticut; he was brought up at Yale College, became himself a minister, and shortly before his death was appointed president of the college in New Jersey. He wrote on divinity and metaphysics, and is a sort of link between the Puritans of the seventeenth century and the great European philosophers of the eighteenth.

The subject, perhaps, in which Americans most distinguished themselves was natural science. Benjamin Franklin, whom we have already seen and shall see again as a statesman, gained by his discoveries in electricity a place scarcely surpassed by any of the natural philosophers of his age. Indeed it was justly said of him that his exploits either as a statesman or as a philosopher, taken by themselves, would have won him an undying reputation. Godfrey and Rittenhouse were mathematicians of some eminence; and Bartram, a self-taught Pennsylvanian, was described by the famous naturalist, Linnaus, as the greatest natural botanist in the world. James Logan, another Pennsylvanian, wrote books of some merit on natural science and other matters, and at his death in 1751 left a library of four thousand volumes to the city of Philadelphia. In lighter branches of literature, poetry, fiction, and the like, America as yet produced no writers of any repute. This was, perhaps, because in New England and Pennsylvania, where there was most education and culture, enough of the old Puritan and Quaker temper was left to make men look with some disfavor on such works. Thus, when in 1750 an attempt was made to establish a theatre at Boston, it was forbidden by the Assembly as "likely to encourage immorality, impiety, and contempt for religion." The same causes checked the growth of art. Nevertheless, about the middle of the eighteenth century, there were three American painters of some note-West, Copley, and Stuart. The two former went to England. West gained considerable fame by large historical pictures. His works are for the most part disfigured by the coldness and formality which was common in the last century. Copley obtained some repute as a painter of historical pictures and portraits. His greatest work is a picture of Lord Chatham swooning in the House of Lords, after his last speech there. Copley is perhaps better known as the father of Lord Lyndhurst, the English Lord Chancellor. Stuart remained in America, and painted the portraits of some of

His works have considerable merit, the leading American statesmen. and some critics even go so far as to consider him superior in certain points to any of the portrait painters of his age, save Sir Joshua. Reynolds.



## CHAPTER XVII.

THE STAMP ACT AND THE TEA TAX.

OW far the English government could lawfully tax the colonies, was, as we have seen, a point on which there had been various disputes, and about which no fixed rule had been laid down. English judges had decided that the colonies might lawfully be taxed by Parliament. But the colonists had never formally acknowledged this claim, and Parliament had never attempted to exercise the right except for the protection of English trade and manufactures. During the reigns of George I. and George II., various proposals

had been made for a general system of taxation in all the colonies. Sir William Keith, governor of Pennsylvania, proposed such a scheme to Sir-Robert Walpole. The Prime Minister replied: "I have Old England set.

against me, and do you think I will have New England likewise?" In 1754, Lord Halifax, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, proposed that a general system of taxation should be put in force, arranged by commissioners from the various colonies. Several of the colonial governors took up the idea, and it seemed likely to be adopted. The Massachusetts Assembly gave its agent in England instructions "to oppose everything that should have the remotest tendency to raise a revenue in the plantations." Other events happened about the same time to breed ill blood between the colonists and the mother



JAMES OTIS.

country. In 1761 the custom-house officers at Boston demanded searchwarrants to assist them in searching for some smuggled goods. The legality of these warrants, called writs of assistance, was then tried before the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. The verdict was in their favor, but publicfeeling was strongly excited against the government, and James Otis, the lawyer who opposed the custom-house officers, gained great popularity. In the same year a dispute arose in New York. Hitherto the Chief Justice

had been liable to be dismissed by the Assembly. This right of dismissal was now transferred to the Crown. The Assembly tried to meet this by withholding the judge's salary, but the English government defeated them by granting it out of the quit-rents paid for the public lands. In 1762 a third dispute sprang up. A ship was sent to guard the fisheries to the north of New England against the French. The Massachusetts Assembly was ordered to pay the cost. They protested against this, and Otis drew up a remonstrance declaring that it would take from the Assembly "their most darling privilege, the right of originating all taxes," and would "annihilate one branch of the legislature."

All these things had been begetting an unfriendly feeling in the colonists towards the mother country. But soon after Parliament adopted measures which excited deeper and more wide-spread discontent. The two most influential ministers in the English government were George Grenville and Charles Townshend. Grenville was painstaking, honest, and well-meaning, but self-confident, obstinate, and ill-informed about America. Townshend was a brilliant speaker, but rash and headstrong, utterly without forethought or caution, and carried away by the love of new and startling measures. He was at the head of the Board of Trade, which then had a large share in the management of the colonies. In March, 1763, Townshend brought forward a complete scheme for remodelling the colonial governments. He proposed to make all the public officers in America dependent on the Crown, to establish a standing army there, and strictly to enforce the navigation laws. The last was the only part of the scheme which was actually put in force. Before the other measures could be carried out, Townshend had left the Board of Trade. His successor, Lord Shelburne, refused to meddle with the taxation of the colonies. But in 1764 he was succeeded by Lord Hillsborough, a man of no great ability or importance. Thus the control of the colonies was practically handed over to The only part of Townshend's scheme of which he approved Grenville. was the enforcement of the navigation laws, and he brought in a bill for this purpose, which was carried. He also resolved to introduce a bill requiring that all legal documents should bear stamps varying in price from six cents to fifty dollars. This measure, known as the Stamp Act, has always been looked on as the beginning of the troubles which led to the War of Independence. Grenville gave notice of this bill a year before he actually introduced it. Several of the colonies at once petitioned and passed resolutions against it. The Virginia Assembly appealed to the king, the Lords, and the Commons, declaring that the taxation of the colonies by Parliament was unconstitutional. New York did likewise. Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and North Carolina appointed committees to correspond with the neighboring colonies about means of resistance. When the bill was

brought before Parliament in 1765, six colonies protested against it. Nevertheless, only a few members of Parliament raised their voices against the measure. The most conspicuous of these were Barré and Conway, both Irishmen, and officers in the army.

The arrival of the news in America was at once the signal for an outburst of indignation. The supporters of the measure were burnt in effigy. Hutchinson, the lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, was especially odious to the people, as the Act was believed to be in a great measure due to his advice. This provoked the colonists the more, as he was a Boston man by birth. His house was attacked by night and pillaged, and he and his family had to flee for their lives. This outrage was resented by the better class of Bostonians, and the Assembly offered a reward of three hundred pounds for the capture of any of the ringleaders. At the same time the Bostonians showed their gratitude to Conway and Barré by placing pictures of them in their town-hall. The first colony which publicly, and through its government, expressed its formal disapproval of the Stamp Act, was Virginia. Among the members of the Virginia Assembly was a young lawyer named Patrick Henry. He had already made himself conspicuous in a lawsuit which had taken place in Virginia. The stipend of the clergy there was paid, not in money, but in tobacco. In 1758 there was a scanty crop of tobacco, and the price of it rose. The Assembly thereupon passed an Act that the stipend of the clergy should be paid in money, at a certain fixed rate, proportioned to the usual value of tobacco, but below its price at that time. The king, persuaded, it is said, by the bishop of London, refused to confirm this Act. The clergy then sued some persons who had paid them in money for the difference between that and the present value of the tobacco to which they were entitled. Henry, who was engaged as counsel against the clergy, boldly declared that the king's sanction was unnecessary to the validity of a law. He lost his cause, but won a great reputation as the champion of the popular party. This, coupled with his eloquence, in which he stood foremost among the American statesmen of his day, marked him out as the leader of the opposition to the Stamp Act. In May, 1765, Henry proposed in the Virginia Assembly a series of five resolutions declaring that the colonies could not be taxed without their own consent. The Assembly, after a severe contest, passed them, and, in the words of Bernard, the governor of Massachusetts, "rang the alarm-bell to the rest of America." A fortnight after, the Massachusetts Assembly took the bold step of proposing to call a congress of deputies from all the colonies, to arrange means of resistance. The project was at first coldly received, and seemed likely to fall to the ground, till South Carolina took it up. In October, deputies from nine colonies, chosen by their representative assemblies, met at New York. ginia, New Hampshire, North Carolina, and Georgia were prevented from

sending deputies, but expressed their sympathy. The Congress drew up addresses to the king, the lords, and the commons. In these they expressed their loyalty to the king and their affection to England, but declared that it was unlawful to tax the colonies without their own consent. Soon after, the Assembly of Massachusetts passed a series of resolutions setting forth the same principles. The people generally devised various means for evading the Stamp Act. In some places they used bark instead of paper; in others they compelled the distributors of stamps to resign. Elsewhere they persisted so obstinately in the use of unstamped paper, that the colonial governors had to yield. Everything was done to make the colonies independent A society of arts, manufactures, and commerce was of English trade. formed to encourage native industry, and, to increase the supply of wool, no lambs were killed. From the outset of the contest, those in America who opposed the mother country were divided into two parties. There were some who held that the colonists ought not merely to resist the Stamp Act, but to deny the right of the English Parliament to tax them, or to make laws for them. There were others who objected to the Stamp Act, on the ground that it was oppressive and ill-timed, but who did not wish to raise any wider question as to the general rights of England over the colonies. This formed an important difference of opinion, which, as the contest went on, grew wider and produced important results.

The petition, and the expression of public opinion in America, was not without effect in England. In the autumn of 1765 Grenville went out of office. The king wished Pitt to form a ministry, and he would have done so, if his brother-in-law, Lord Temple, would have joined him. Pitt was the one leading statesman of that age who thoroughly understood the American colonies, who knew the value of their friendship, and the danger of their enmity. But unhappily, Temple would not support him, and he was unable to form a ministry. Still, the change of government was a gain to the eause of the colonies. Lord Rockingham was the new Prime Minister. He was a moderate and sensible man, conciliatory in his views towards the colonies, but unhappily without the courage needful to carry out an unpopular policy. The real strength of his ministry lay in Conway and Edmund Burke. The former was among the few who had opposed the Stamp Act. The latter was as yet untried as a practical statesman, but he was specially fitted to deal with the question of colonial taxation. He was an Irishman, and so had a peculiar sympathy with a dependent nation. An account of the European colonies in America, the best work of the kind then in existence, was generally, and it would seem justly, believed to have been written by him. Few men had more knowledge of the history and institutions of his country, or could judge better how far the claims of the Americans were well-founded. Pitt too, though he would not join the ministry, gave it his support, as he

described himself, "single, unsolicited, and unconnected." In one of hismost eloquent speeches, he warned Parliament that in carrying out the taxation of the colonies, they would overthrow the principles on which the freedom of their own country rested. "America," he said, "if she fell, would fall like the strong man; she would embrace the pillar of the state, and pull down the constitution along with her." The ministry found help in another quarter. Benjamin Franklin was then in England, on business as the agent of Pennsylvania. He was examined before the House of Commons as to the probable effect of the Stamp Act. He stated forcibly the objections to taxing the colonies. He pointed out that England would be, in the long run, the loser, as the Americans would in revenge manufacture articles for themselves, instead of depending, as they always had done, on those sent out from England. In February, Conway moved the repeal of the Stamp Act, and it was carried by a majority of more than a hundred. The ministry marred the concession by bringing in a bill declaring that Parliament had a right to tax the colonies. This was opposed by Pitt in the Commons, and by Lord Camden in the Lords; nevertheless it passed both Houses. The colonists were for the time too much delighted at the repeal of the Stamp Act to trouble themselves much about a measure which carried with it no immediate mischief. They received the news with great public rejoicings. Special honors were paid in various colonies to the king, Pitt, Conway, and Barré. But though the difficulty had been surmounted for the time, much mischief had been done. Violent language had been used on each side. Even the opponents of the Stamp Act in England regretted much what was said by the colonists, and complained that temperate remonstrances could find neither a publisher nor a reader in America. In England, on the other hand, few took the trouble to acquaint themselves with the true state of the colonies, and thus the nation was, to a great extent, acting in the dark. One London newspaper, if we may believe Franklin, tried to frighten its readers about the increasing resources of the Americans, by telling them of a project for establishing whale-fisheries in the upper Canadian lakes. Franklin, in ridicule of this, told his English readers that there could not be a finer sight than the whales leaping up the Falls of Niagara.

In the following August, Rockingham went out of office. He was succeeded by Pitt, now raised to the peerage as Earl of Chatham. He was at the head of an ill-assorted ministry, made up of men of different parties and conflicting views. Townshend was his Chancellor of the Exchequer. Failing health drove Chatham into retirement, and Townshend was left to carry out his own policy unchecked. He had been, as much as Grenville, the author of the Stamp Act, and he now proceeded to earry out the same policy. He brought forward and carried through a Bill imposing duties on various commodities imported to America. The revenue thus raised was to-



FALLS OF NIAGARA.

be placed at the king's disposal, and the civil officers in America were to be paid out of it. This, as we have seen, was a scheme which the colonists had always stoutly resisted. At the same time an Act was passed to punish the Assembly of New York for its disobedience to the English government. It had refused to supply the king's troops with necessaries. Accordingly, Parliament enacted that the governor of New York should not give his assent to any measure passed by the Assembly till it had obeyed the law on this point. This Act had not the intended effect, as the New York Assembly remained firm.

When the news of these Acts came out to America, the spirit of resistance was kindled afresh. Massachusetts again was one of the first colonies to act. The Assembly drew up a remonstrance, and sent it to the ministry. It rested mainly on the ground that the colonies could not be taxed without their own consent. The Assembly then sent letters to all the other colonies, telling them what it had done. Before long Massaclusetts found itself in open opposition to the English government. anniversary of the repeal of the Stamp Act was kept at Boston as a public holiday. Some disorder, not apparently serious, followed: and Governor Bernard made this the ground for demanding troops from England. Accordingly a regiment was sent out to be quartered in the town, and a frigate and four small vessels were ordered to lie in the harbor. About the same time the custom-house officers seized a sloop called the Liberty, belonging to one of the leading citizens of Boston, on the charge of smuggling, and called on the crew of a man-of-war to help them. Bostonians resisted, and the Commissioners of Customs had to take refuge in the castle. During the excitement and ill-feeling which followed these proceedings, letters were sent out from Lord Hillsborough, the Secretary of State, bidding Bernard to dissolve the Assembly, unless it would withdraw its circular letters to the other colonies. This it refused to do, by a majority of ninety-two votes to seventeen, whereupon Bernard dissolved it. though not allowed to sit as an Assembly, the members came together as a convention without any legal power, and requested the governor to call an Assembly. He refused, and ordered them to disperse. Instead of obeying him they drew up a fresh petition to the king, remonstrating against being taxed by Parliament, and against the civil officers being made independent of the Assembly. The Council in the meantime had been also opposing the governor. Two regiments were to be sent to Boston from Halifax, and Bernard gave orders that the Council should provide quarters for them in the town. The Council declared that it was not intended by the Act of Parliament that the troops should be quartered in private houses while there was room in barracks. After a dispute, Bernard and General Gage, who was in command of the troops, gave way. The citizens of Boston also

agreed to abstain, as far as possible, from the use of imported articles, by way of striking a blow at English commerce. In this they were followed by the southern colonies. In all these proceedings, except, perhaps, the affair of the *Liberty*, the people of Boston seem to have acted with judgment and moderation. Another of their proceedings was less justifiable. Otis and others collected four hundred muskets, which they stowed in the town-hall, giving notice that they would be served out to the citizens if they were needed.

The English government now seemed inclined towards a moderate policy. The ministry with one accord proposed the repeal of all the duties except that on tea; on that they were divided. Just as Rockingham's ministry, when it repealed the Stamp Act, still expressly reserved the right of taxing the colonies, so now the ministry retained the tea tax, not for its own sake, but lest, by repealing it, they should seem to give up their claim Thus the intended concession failed to conciliate the colonists. When the repeal of the duties was announced at Boston, the merchants of the town held a meeting, and resolved that the concession was insufficient. Boston soon became the scene of fresh and worse dicturbances. The departure of Governor Bernard was celebrated by public rejoicings, by bonfires, ringing of bells, and firing of cannon. An unfriendly feeling between the soldiers and the Bostonians soon showed itself in various ways. Early in 1770 disturbances broke out, and the soldiers and citizens came to blows. On the 5th of March a number of soldiers were surrounded by a mob, who hooted and pelted them. It is said that the soldiers had already provoked the mob by rushing through the streets, laying about them with sticks and At length the troops were provoked into firing upon the people. of whom they killed three and wounded eight, two mortally. Next morning a town-meeting was held, and delegates were sent to Hutchinson, the lieutenant-governor, who after Bernard's departure was at the head of affairs, to demand the withdrawal of all the troops. He ordered one of the two regiments, that specially concerned in the disturbance, to withdraw to the castle; but he kept the other in the town. The townsmen, however, insisted on the withdrawal of all the troops, and Hutchinson at length yielded. It is not easy to say how far the blame of this event-the Boston massacre, as it was called-lay with the mob, and how far with the soldiers. It is impossible altogether to acquit either. But it must be said in justice that the better class of the townspeople showed no wish to deal harshly with the case. When Captain Preston, the officer in command, and eight of his men, were brought to trial, John Adams and Josiah Quincey, two young barristers of considerable repute, both of whom sympathized strongly with the popular side, undertook the defence. It seemed quite doubtful whether Preston had really given the order to fire, and how far

soldiers were acquitted; the other two were convicted of manslaughter.



the soldiers had acted in self-defence. Accordingly Preston and six of the

Other events at Boston followed on the massacre, which kept up the illfeeling between the townspeople and the authorities. The king sent out orders to exempt the Commissioners of Customs from taxation. The Assembly contended that the king had no right to meddle with the question of taxation, or to remit, any more than to impose, taxes. Soon after this it was announced that all the law officers were to receive salaries from the Crown, and to be independent of the Assembly. The citizens thereupon, at a public meeting, appointed a committee to draw up a statement of their grievances, and to publish it in the various colonies. In the latter part of 1773 Franklin sent out from England a number of letters written by Hutchinson to various public men in England, proposing measures against the liberties of the colonies. These letters called forth great indignation, and the Assembly, on the strength of them, petitioned for Hutchinson's removal.

On one point the colouists seemed inclined to give way. They had entered into an agreement to injure English commerce by importing no goods from England. The wisdom of this policy seems doubtful. It forced the Americans to manufacture many articles which they might have imported more easily and cheaply; and, when the war actually broke out, they were worse supplied than they need have been. In any case the agreement could have no effect, unless it were observed by all the colonies alike. For a while the colonists remained firm, but gradually they gave way. The only commodity which was altogether excluded was tea. In December another disturbance took place at Boston. Three ships containing tea arrived in the harbor. As this was the one commodity still taxed, those who were opposed to government were specially anxious that none should be landed. Accordingly a number of them, disguised as Indians, seized the ships, and emptied the cargo—three hundred and forty chests of tea—into the harbor.

Next year the English government took steps to punish the Bostonians

for their various misdeeds. The port was to be closed so as to cut off supplies; the Assembly was suspended; public officers or soldiers accused of



THE DESTRUCTION OF TEA IN BOSTON HARBOR.

any offence were to be sent to England or Nova Scotia for trial, and all troops were to be quartered on the town of Boston. At the same time General Gage, the commander of the troops, was appointed governor. One

wise measure was adopted by the ministry. The French Canadians, mostof whom were Roman Catholics, were granted full freedom of worship. They were also allowed to take an oath of fidelity to the king, instead of the oath of supremacy, and to hold their property under their own laws. This wise and moderate policy was rewarded by the loyalty of the Canadians. The Acts against Boston were opposed by Burke and others, but in vain. In June, 1774, the last Assembly under the royal government was held in Massachusetts. It passed resolutions recommending a congress of the different colonies, appointed five deputies, and voted them five hundred pounds for their expenses. The Assembly also passed resolutions declaring its disapproval of the arbitrary conduct of the governor, and recommending the inhabitants to leave off using imported articles, and to encourage home manufactures. Thereupon the governor dissolved them. The other colonies showed every disposition to support Massachusetts. The Assembly of Virginia set apart the 1st of June for a public fast, as on that day the Port Act came into force. For this they were dissolved by the governor, but nevertheless most of the other colonies followed their example. Virginia. and Maryland both resolved to export no tobacco to England; and South Carolina and Virginia gave rice and corn for the relief of Boston. In Massachusetts the spirit of disaffection increased. In some of the towns the people were ready to take up arms. In two of them, mobs took possession of the law courts, and would not suffer proceedings to go forward. When Gage took possession of the public store of powder, and moved it to the castle, the whole neighborhood rose up; and in a day twenty thousand people were gathered together. They dispersed, however, without doing anything.

In September the Congress met at Philadelphia. The Massachusetts deputies were received on their way with public honors. The Congress passed various resolutions expressing its sympathy with Boston, and denying the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. It also drew up an agreement pledging the colonies to have no commercial dealings with England. At the same time it sent a petition to the king and a memorial to the people of Great Britain, resembling the other documents of the kind which had been issued before. The Congress also published an address to the people of Quebec, representing that the Act of Parliament made them dependent for their freedom on the pleasure of England, and exhorting them to make common cause with the other colonists.

In November, 1774, a new Parliament met. The proceedings in its first session, with reference to America, were the most important that had yet taken place. Lord North, who was now at the head of the Ministry, being only a peer's eldest son, sat in the House of Commons. He was little more than the mouthpiece of the king, who was bitterly hostile to the colonies.

Throughout the whole session a small minority, containing some of the ablest men and best debaters in both Houses, fought against the American policy of the government. The contest began when the Address to the King was moved in the House of Commons. An amendment was proposed. requesting that the king should lav all the facts about America before Parliament. In the ensuing debate, the ministry was severely blamed for its American policy, but the amendment was defeated by a majority of more than two hundred. In the House of Lords a like debate was followed by a like result. On the 3d of February, Lord North announced his American policy: the English forces in America were to be increased, the colonists were to be cut off from the American fisheries, and the colonies were to be punished with a different amount of severity, according to their various degrees of guilt. Those measures were brought forward separately, and, though each of them successively was opposed, all were carried. At the same time. Lord North introduced a measure intended to conciliate the colonies, and to meet the difficulty about taxation. He proposed that the colonial assemblies should be allowed to vote a certain sum, and that, if the English government thought it enough, the colonists should be left to raise the money in what way they pleased. This was a concession, but only a slight one, not likely to have much effect on the colonists in their present state of anger. During the same session, Chatham and Burke each brought forward schemes for conciliation. Chatham proposed that a congress from all the colonies should meet, and should make a free grant of a perpetual revenue to the king, to be spent, not on the payment of civil officers in America, but in reducing the national debt; that the recent Acts against America should be suspended without being formally repealed, and that all the privileges granted by the colonial charters and constitution should be confirmed. This scheme seemed to meet the chief demands of the colonists, and at the same time to save the ministry from an open confession of defeat. In spite of this, and of the high position and past services of Chatham, the House of Lords not only threw out the measure, but would not even suffer a copy of the scheme to lie on the table of the House for consideration. Not long after, Burke brought forward a motion in the House of Commons, proposing to repeal the Aets against America, and to leave the taxation of the colonies to their own Assemblies. He spoke strongly of the loyalty of the colonists, and showed that, in claiming the right of taxing themselves, they were only holding fast to principles which Englishmen had always asserted. Nevertheless, his motion was defeated by a large majority. On the 10th of April a petition was presented to the king from the city of London, representing the injury to trade and to the welfare of the kingdom which was likely to follow from the present policy towards America. The king, in answer, only expressed his surprise that any of his subjects should encourage the rebellions temper of the Americans. During the whole period which we have gone through in this chapter, ministers and Parliament were misled chiefly by their ignorance of the wants and feelings of the colonists. This was mainly due to their being dependent for information on colonial governors and other men of indifferent character and prejudiced against the Americans. Moreover, there was on the part of the king and his advisers a firm determination to hear no appeal from the colonists, however temperately worded, unless it acknowledged the right of Parliament to tax them. On that one point the colonists were equally firm. At the outset they might perhaps not have quarreled with the mere claim to that right, if it had not been harshly and unwisely exercised. But as the struggle went on, they became hardened in their resistance, and claimed freedom, not merely from a particular tax, but from taxation generally.

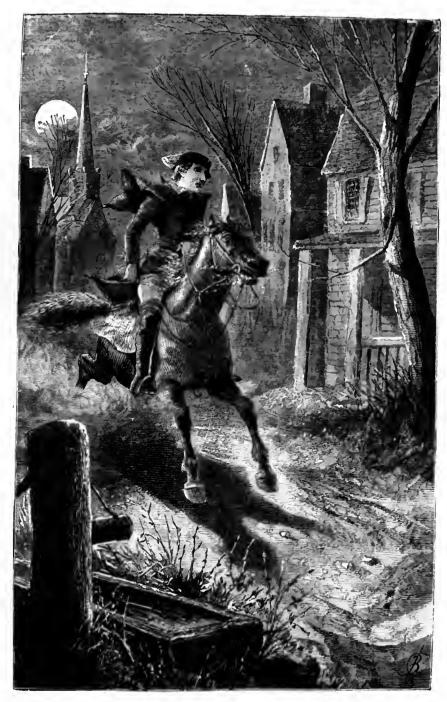


## CHAPTER XVIII.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

N the spring of 1775, the state of things at Boston became more threatening. There was no longer an Assembly, but the Convention of the colony was mustering the militia, providing for the safe keeping of the military stores, and making other preparations for active resistance. In February, Gage, hearing that there were some cannon at Salem, sent to seize them. When the soldiers came to a river, their passage was barred by the country people, who took up the drawbridge and scut-

thed the only boat at hand, while the cannon were carried off. A fight seemed impending, but a clergyman interposed, and persuaded the people to-lower the drawbridge. The troops marched over unmolested, but failed to find the cannon. In Boston the ill-feeling between the people and the soldiers showed itself in various ways. In Virginia the colonists were also making ready for action. There, too, a convention was called together. Henry, in an eloquent speech, warned the colonists that all hope of reconciliation was at an end, and that they must choose between war and slavery. They answered to his appeal, and proceeded to put the militia in order for service. Lord Dunmore, the governor, thereupon seized the public supply of powder. He also enraged the settlers by threatening that, if any violence were done, he would free and arm the negro slaves, and burn Williamsburg.



PAUL REVERE'S RIDE,



Before going further, it may be well to consider what resources the Americans had for the war on which they were about to enter. Their two chief sources of weakness were want of union among the colonies, and want of military organization and discipline. As we shall see throughout the contest, the shortcomings of the Americans on these points were constantly creating difficulties. Besides, there was a want of concert among the leading men. Some of them had already given up all hopes of reconciliation, and were resolved to aim at once at independence, while others, to the last, clung to the hope of maintaining the union with England. Moreover, the Congress of delegates had no legal powers. It could only pass resolutions; it could not enforce its decisions. As a set-off against these drawbacks, there was much in the life and habits of the people which fitted them for such a war. It was not necessary that the colonists should win pitched battles. It was enough if they could harass the English



THE PATRIOTS SEIZE A CANNON AT SALEM.

troops, and cut off their supplies. For this sort of work the difference between well-disciplined soldiers and raw militia is less important than it would be in regular warfare. Many of the Americans too had experience in backwoods fighting with the Indians. Moreover the life of settlers in a new country calls out activity and readiness. A settler is not only a farmer, but a hunter, and to some extent a craftsman as well. Moreover, America was not like an old country, where the loss of a few large trading and manufacturing towns cripples the whole nation. There were also several weak points in the position of England. The nation did not go into the war heartily and with one accord. Many of the wisest statesmen and greatest thinkers were utterly opposed to the policy of the Ministry. The merchants, the Dissenters, and the Irish people, for the most part sympathized with the Americans. All these things made the case of the colonists more hopeful than it might have seemed at first sight.

In April, 1775, the long-threatened contest began. Gage heard that the colonists had cannon and other stores at Concord, an inland town about half a day's march from Boston. He accordingly sent a force of eight hundred men to seize them. At Lexington, a town on the road, the troops met a small body of militia drawn up. One of the British officers ordered them

to disperse. They refused, and the regulars fired, killing eight and wounding seven of the militia. The troops then continued their march to Concord. Outside the place they were opposed by a force of about four hundred men. The regulars got possession of the town and attempted to prevent the colonial militia from entering. Both sides then opened fire; after a while the regulars retreated and marched back to Boston. They were harassed on the way by their opponents, who, as the news spread, received constant reinforcements. But for the arrival of a fresh force from Boston, it would



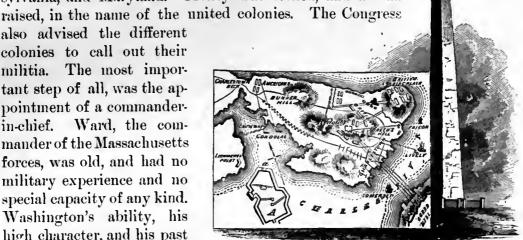
INDEPENDENCE HALL,

probably have gone hard with the regular troops. As it was, they are said to have lost nearly three hundred men before they reached Boston. The Massachusetts Congress at once raised an army. Recruits flocked in from all quarters, and the British troops who were in possession of Boston were blockaded by sea and land. The inhabitants were at length allowed to leave the place on condition that they surrendered their arms. Many of them, it is said, suffered considerable hardships in their departure. after, a force of a hundred and fifty New Englanders, under the command of one Ethan Allen, marched against Ticonderoga, a post of great importance on the Canadian frontier. The garrison was utterly unprepared, and the place was surprised and taken without difficulty. Crown Point, another strong place, was soon afterwards seized in like manner. There were other petty hostilities, in which the Americans had the best of it.

In May the Congress met at Philadelphia. Twelve of the thirteen colonies sent delegates, chosen by the people in general conventions. Strange as it may seem, even after what had happened, the Americans did not give up all hope of reconciliation. They apparently thought that the policy of the ministry did not represent the feelings of the British people. Accordingly, Congress appointed committees to draw up a petition to the king, and an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain. At the same time it made preparations for defence. It resolved that no bills should be cashed for British officers, and no provisions supplied to British troops or ships. The army already raised by Massachusetts was adopted as the continental army.

Companies of riflemen were to be raised in Virginia, Penn sylvania, and Maryland. Money was coined, and a loan

also advised the different colonies to call out their militia. The most important step of all, was the appointment of a commanderin-chief. Ward, the commander of the Massachusetts forces, was old, and had no military experience and no special capacity of any kind. Washington's ability, his high character, and his past services, pointed him out as the one man fitted above all



PLAN OF BUNKER HILL.

others for the post. This appointment was proposed by John Adams, a leading man in Massachusetts, and was cordially accepted by the whole Congress. The existence of such a leader at such a time was the greatest good fortune that could have befallen the Americans. Had his ability and integrity been less conspicuous, or had he been open to the least suspicion of ambition or self-seeking, the northern colonies might not have endured the appointment of a southern general. As it was, that appointment served to bind together the two great divisions, and enable each to feel that it bore an equal part in the struggle.

Before Washington could take command of the forces, the first pitched battle had been fought. On the 15th of June, Gage, who had been strengthened by the arrival of fresh troops, took steps towards occupying Bunker's Hill. This is a piece of high ground commanding Boston, at the end of the peninsula on which Charlestown stands. The Americans determined to anticipate Gage, and occupied the place with a thousand men. The British troops then marched upon the place to dislodge them. The ascent was steep, and the difficulty was made greater by the heat of the day and the length of the grass. With these advantages, the Americans twice beat back their assailants, but at the third charge their stock of powder ran short, and as they had no bayonets, they were forced to retreat. The British were too much exhausted to press them severely. The loss of the Americans was about two hundred killed, and three hundred wounded. The British lost two hundred and twenty killed, and over eight hundred wounded. Gage wrote home, that the rebels were not so despicable as many had thought them, and that their conquest would be no easy task.

It might have been thought that Congress would now give up all hopes of reconciliation, and would have seen that nothing was left but either resistance or complete submission. This was the view of many of the ablest members of Congress. They held that, until the colonies definitely threw off the voke of the mother-country, there could be no unity or firmness in their proceedings. But the majority still looked forward to the possibility of reconciliation. The leader of this latter party was Dickinson, of Pennsylvania. He drew up a petition to the king, which was adopted by the Congress, loyal and moderate in its tone. The views of the extreme men on either side were well set forth in two speeches, made by Dickinson and one of his chief opponents, Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia. Dickinson, in speaking of his own address, said, "There is but one word in it that 1 disapprove of, and that is, Congress." "There is but one word in it that I approve of," said Harrison, "and that is, Congress." The Americans, however, no longer addressed themselves to Parliament. The Congress forwarded an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, setting forth the hopelessness of the attempts to subdue the colonies, and one to the Lord Mayor and City of London, thanking them for their advocacy.

Congress now ventured on a bolder step than any that it had yet taken. It resolved to send an invading force against Canada. To do this was in a great measure to quit the purely defensive position which it had hitherto held. The Americans, however, believed that Carleton, the governor of Canada, was about to invade their territory, and so considered that, by marching against Canada, they were only anticipating an attack. Three thousand men were sent out commanded by Richard Montgomery. He was an Irishman, who had served with distinction in the late Canadian war. Thinking that he had been insufficiently rewarded, he had retired to a farm in New York, and had married into the family of the Livingstons, important merchants in that colony and conspicuous as opponents of the English government. At first Montgomery's efforts were successful; and St. John's

and Montreal both surrendered. The only check sustained by the Americans was the defeat and capture of Ethan Allen, who had headed an expedition against Montreal, as reckless but not as successful as his earlier attempt against Ticonderoga. Quebec was now threatened by two forces, one under Montgomery, the other under Benedict Arnold, who had started from the mouth of the Kennebec with eleven hundred men. In December their forces united before Quebec, and on the 31st they assaulted the town. The assailants were defeated, with a loss of sixty men killed and nearly four hundred taken prisoners. Among those slain was Montgomery. No braver or more high-minded man fell in the whole war. In Parliament, the friends

of America lamented his death and praised his memory; and even Lord North generously admitted that he. was brave, able, and humane, and that he had undone his country by his virtues. The Americans continued to blockade Quebec for four months, not withstanding that smallpox broke out in their camp. From the position of the place it was impossible for the besiegers to keep out supplies and fresh troops from England. When the garrison. strengthened by reinforcements, made a sally, the Americans retreated. Carleton, with great humanity, issued a proclamation, ordering that the sick and wounded, many of whom were scattered in the woods, should be sought out and relieved at the public expense, and,



when well, should be suffered to depart home. He also checked the Canadian Indians from making inroads on the New England frontier.

In Virginia, war had broken out between Lord Dunmore and the Assembly. Dunmore seized the powder belonging to the colony, and then, fearing the people, established himself on board a man-of-war. The Assembly would not carry on business unless he would land. He refused, and at length the Assembly dissolved. As in Massachusetts, its place was supplied by a Convention, which proceeded to levy taxes and to put the colony in a state of defence. Dunmore then collected a fleet, and petty hostilities broke out between him and the people. In November he issued a proclamation, declaring martial law, and requiring that all persons fit to bear arms should

join him, on pain of being treated as traitors. At the same time he promised their freedom to all negroes who joined him. By this means he raised a force of several hundred men. On the 9th of December the first serious engagement took place. The colonial troops were intrenched in a position defended by a narrow causeway. Captain Fordyce, with more than a hundred men, attempted to dislodge them. He was met by a heavy fire. Fordyee fell, and his troops, after a brave resistance, were beaten back, having lost about half their number. Dunmore's party took to their ships and were soon joined by two vessels from England. These brought three thousand muskets, with which Dunmore was to arm the negroes and Indians. A flag of truce was sent on shore to the town of Norfolk, to demand provisions, which were refused. Dunmore then resolved to bombard the town. New Year's Day, 1776, a cannonade was opened. Parties of sailors landed under cover of the ships' guns and set fire to the town, and by the evening,

Norfolk, the richest city in Virginia, was a heap of ashes.

During the session of 1775, various attempts were made by the friends of America in both Houses of Parliament to change the policy of the ministry, but in vain. Partly through mismanagement, partly through ill-fortune, the supplies sent out to the British forces had miscarried, and great waste had ensued. The expenses of the war brought with them an increase of taxation. Nevertheless, the ministry and the majority of Parliament held firmly to their previous policy. The King's Speech at the beginning of the session denounced, in strong language, "the desperate conspiracy" in North America. The petition of Congress was presented by Penn, the proprietor of Pennsylvania, but Parliament decided not to consider it. Penn himself was examined before the House of Lords. His evidence went to show that the colonists were both willing and able to hold out, and that they were well supplied with men and arms. The Duke of Riehmond in the Upper House, and Burke in the Lower, brought forward proposals for conciliation, but were defeated by large majorities. Lord Mansfield, who supported the ministry, plainly and courageously told the House of Lords that England must either conquer by force or give way altogether. He illustrated his view by the story of a Scotch officer in the Thirty Years' War, who, pointing to the enemy, said to his men, "See you those lads? kill them, or they will kill you." The results of the session showed that the Government would be content with nothing less than the total submission of the colonists. changes in the ministry about this time made the prospects of America. look even darker than before. The Duke of Grafton, an honest and sensible man, who had been at first in favor of the ministerial policy, but was afterwards convinced of its folly, left office. Lord Dartmouth, also a friend to the Americans, was succeeded as Secretary to the Colonies by Lord George Germaine, an able man, but of harsh and violent temper. A still greater loss to the cause of America was the retirement of Chatham, who was withheld by illness from taking any part in public affairs. Yet he showed what he thought of the ministerial policy, by ordering his son, who was aide-decamp to General Carleton, to throw up his appointment, rather than serve against the Americans. One proceeding on the part of the English government, which especially enraged the colonists, was the hiring a number of German troops to serve in America.

The position of Washington after he was placed in command was one of great difficulty. His troops were undisciplined; there was great rivalry between the men of different colonies, and the supply of powder was quite insufficient. There was searcely enough for the infantry, and the artillery was practically rendered useless. The Americans suffered too from the hindrance which always besets an army made up, not of regular soldiers, but of citizens. They were unwilling to stay long away from their homes and business. They would only enlist for short periods, and thus the army was for the most part made up of raw recruits. In numbers, the Americans had the best of it, being about sixteen thousand to twelve thousand of the enemy. But this advantage was in some degree lessened by the fact that the Americans had to guard a wide frontier, while the British had only to hold a single point. The chief superiority which the Americans possessed was their better supply of food and clothing. The British stores had been shipwrecked on their way out, and the famine in the West Indies cut off an important source of help. In spite of all the difficulties which surrounded him, the Americans grumbled at Washington for not striking some decisive blow, and in December, 1775, Cougress sent him a resolution, authorizing him "to attack Boston in any manner that he might deem expedient," the 4th of March he resolved to make an attempt. After nightfall a heavy cannonade began from the American lines, and was kept up on both sides till morning. In the meantime Washington sent a force to occupy Dorchester heights, ground which commanded Boston harbor. The Americans, as might have been expected from an army of countrymen and farmers, were skilful at throwing up earthworks, and by daybreak they were safely intrenched. The British prepared to dislodge them, but were prevented by a storm; and before they could renew the attempt, the earthworks had been so strengthened that an attack was hopeless. It was impossible to hold the town while the Americans were in possession of this point. Accordingly, on the 17th of March the troops embarked, and Washington entered Boston.

In March, hostilities broke out in North Carolina. The assembly accused Martin, the governor, of exciting an insurrection among the negroes, declared him a public enemy, and forbade any one to communicate with him. He thereupon raised the royal standard and collected a force, consisting mainly

of unigrants from the Scotch highlands. An engagement followed, in which the governor's forces were defeated, with the loss of many prisoners and much property, including, it is said, fifteen thousand pounds in gold. This success was of great importance to the colonists. By it North Carolina, which had been looked upon as one of the weakest of the colonies, had shown that it could defend itself.

In the summer of 1776 Congress took the important step of declaring the colonies independent states. The feeling in favor of this measure had been gradually gaining strength. Many thought that the failure of the Canada expedition was partly due to the nation not having thrown itself zealously and heartily into the war, and that they would not do this, until independence had been declared. In October, 1775, New Hampshire, through its delegates, petitioned Congress to be allowed to set up a government of its own framing. Congress, however, did not answer this request at once, hoping that reconciliation might still be possible. But the king's speech in the autumn of 1775, and the rejection of the petition presented by Penn, convinced the Americans that there was no hope of the king or the ministry yielding. Accordingly Congress assented to the proposal of New



Hampshire, and at the same time advised South Carolina and Virginia to form independent governments. Hampshire, while it formed a government for itself, yet declared its allegiance to Great Britain. Virginia showed a more defiant spirit. In January the convention of that colony passed a motion, instructing its delegates to recommend Congress to open the ports of America to all nations.

Those who supported a thorough-going policy of resistance felt that it would not be enough for the states separately to declare themselves independent. The whole body of colonies must unite for that purpose. As Franklin said, "We must all hang together unless we would all hang separately." In January, 1776, a scheme for confederation, drawn up by Franklin, was laid before Congress, but Dickinson, Franklin's colleague, opposed it strongly, and it was thrown out. Nevertheless, Congress about this time took steps which showed that it no longer acknowledged the authority of Great Britain. A private agent was sent to France, and the people of Canada were advised to set up a government for themselves. After long deliberation, the American ports were thrown open to the world, whereby the English navigation laws were set at nought. Early . in June, Lee, of Virginia, proposed that Congress should declare the colonies independent. He was seconded by John Adams. Adams, like Franklin, had clung to the hope of reconciliation as long as there seemed any reasonable prospect of it; but when once he was convinced that it was impossible,

he never wavered or looked behind him. A committee of five, including Adams and Franklin, was appointed to draft a Declaration. The substance was mainly supplied by Adams, but the form of words was due to Thomas Jefferson. He was a young Virginian, already known as a brilliant writer and a strong opponent to the anthority of Great Britain. He was extreme in his views, and often hot-headed and intemperate in his expression of them. The Declaration of Independence, as it originally came from his pen, contained many expressions, which were afterwards softened down by his colleagues. On the 1st of July the general question, whether the colonics should be independent, was laid before Congress. Each colony had a single vote, decided by the majority of the delegates from that colony. Nine of



INDEPENDENCE SQUARE.

the thirteen colonies were in favor of independence. On the first day of the discussion Dickinson vigorously opposed the motion, but next day he stayed away, and thus the vote of Pennsylvania was altered. The arrival of another delegate changed the vote of Delaware, and South Carolina, rather than stand alone, withdrew its opposition. New York alone was unable to vote, and on the 2d of July, by the decision of twelve colonies, it was resolved "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." On the 4th of July, the Declaration of Independence was laid before Congress, and was formally

adopted. It set forth the grounds on which the revolt of the colonists was held justifiable; it brought eighteen charges against the king, and alleged that he had shown himself "unfit to be the ruler of a free people." Finally, it declared that the united colonies were free and independent States, that the connection with Great Britain was, and ought to be, at an end; and that the colonies had full power to levy war, make peace, contract alliances, and act in all things as free and independent States.

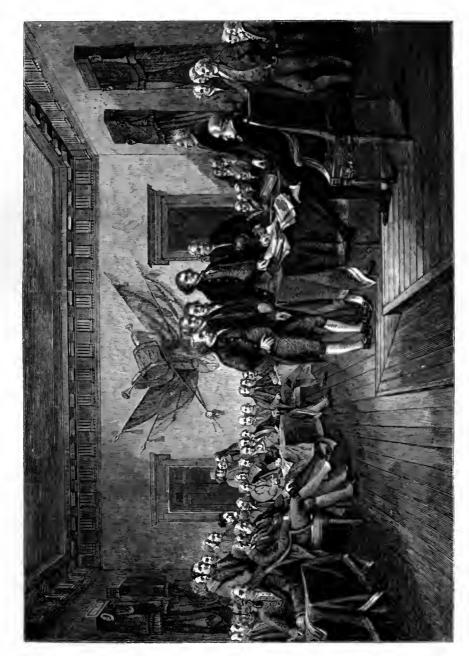


## CHAPTER XIX.

THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

HE Declaration of Independence left the thirteen colonies, according to their own claim, free and independent States. But it did not give Congress any legal authority over the citizens, or establish any central power over the whole body of States. It was clear that, without some such power, the war could not be carried on with any hope of success. Immediately after the Declaration of Independence, a committee was appointed to draw up Articles of Confederation; these, however, were not agreed on by the Congress till the follow-

ing year, and they were not adopted by the whole body of States till 1781. During the whole of that time all power lav with the independent State governments. Congress, as before the Declaration of Independence, could only advise, and could not enforce its wishes. There were two main difficulties which Congress encountered in settling a scheme of confederation. The committee who drew up the articles proposed that each colony should contribute to the general treasury in proportion to its population. Most of the delegates from the Southern States contended that the contribution should be proportioned to the free population only. To count the slaves, they said, was as unfair as to count cattle. To this the Northerners answered that, by not counting the slaves, they would give slave labor an immense advantage over free. Free labor, in fact, would be taxed, while slave labor was left untaxed. This, they said, would be at once unfair to the North, and would have the evil effect of fostering slavery. In the end the original proposal was carried by the votes of the seven northernmost States. The dispute is interesting, as being perhaps the first symptom of a long and bitter conflict between the Northern and Southern States, springing out of the question of slavery. Another dispute arose as to the number of votes to be given to



THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.



each State. The committee proposed that each State should send what number of delegates it pleased, from two to seven, but that, as hitherto, they should only have one vote between them. Others held that the States ought to have votes in proportion to their population. Otherwise, as they pointed out, if the seven smallest States carried a question, it would practically come to this, that a large majority of the nation would be ruled by a small minority. On the other hand, there was a strong feeling that a different arrangement would press hardly on the rights of 'the smaller States. This view prevailed, and the States retained equal votes. The Articles of Confederation were finally decided on in November, 1777. They declared the thirteen States to be a Confederacy called the United States of America. A citizen of any one State was to have full rights of citizenship in all the others. No State was to form any independent alliance or treaty, or to make war, except in case of invasion. Various causes, as we shall hereafter see, delayed the acceptance of these articles by the different States.

At the same time that the committee was drawing up these articles, the various States were forming their independent governments. All these, with two exceptions, were modeled on the old colonial governments, and consisted of a Governor, a Council, and a House of Representatives. Pennsylvania and Georgia had only a House of Representatives, thinking a Council unnecessary; but this change was found to work badly, and after a while they adopted a like system with the rest. Congress, during the summer of 1776, sent three Commissioners to France, to make secret negotiations for an alliance. Franklin opposed this, saying that "a virgin State should preserve the virgin character, and not go about suitoring for alliances, but wait with decent dignity for the application of others." He was, however, overruled,

and he was himself appointed one of the Commissioners.

It must not be thought that the American people had gone into the contest with one accord. There was a party, not indeed numerous, but containing several men of influence, called by the Americans Tories, and by the British Loyalists, who held fast to England. The middle colonies, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, were the quarter in which this party mustered strongest. The Americans seem to have regarded the Tories with even greater batred than they did their British enemies, and to have treated them in many cases with great harshness. Even Washington, usually the most just and moderate of men, was betrayed into using harsh language in speaking of their sufferings, although he spoke with great severity of unlawful outrages committed by his own soldiers on the property of alleged Tories; and he never seems to have given any sanction to their ill-treatment. Though the Tories in the early part of the war caused a great deal of uneasiness to the Americans, they seem on the whole to have been of very little service to the British. Indeed, as we shall find throughout the whole

war, the worst enemy with which the British had to deal was, not the armies of the Americans, but the enmity of the common people.

In May, 1776, a British squadron of ten ships under Sir Peter Parker arrived on the coast of South Carolina, and were joined by a land force under General Clinton. The point arrived at was Sullivan's Island, about six miles from Charlestown, and commanding that place. This island was fortified by the Americans. On the 28th of June, the fleet opened a cannonade against the island, and the firing was kept up all day. It was intended that Clinton's forces should wade across an arm of the river and attack the island. The water, however, was too deep to be forded, and this plan was given up. Before night the fleet withdrew with a loss of some two thousand killed and wounded. The Americans stated their own loss at less than one-fifth of that number. The victory was of great importance, as for the present it saved Charlestown, practically the capital of the three southernmost colonies.

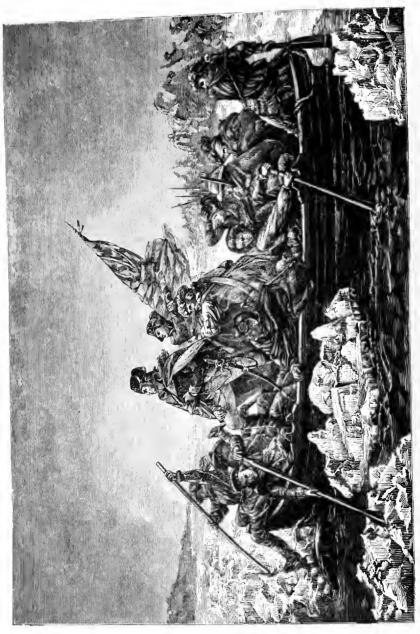
In the summer of 1776 Lord Howe was sent out to take command of the British naval forces. His brother, Sir William Howe, was also serving in America, as commander-in-chief of the land forces. The brothers Howe were intrusted with a document called a commission for the pacification of America, drawn up by the Ministry, and approved of by Parliament. But as this only empowered the Howes to receive submissions and to grant pardons, and as the Americans had no wish to submit and would not allow that they needed pardon, the commission was of no great value. In one way the selection of Lord Howe for this post was a judicious one. His brother had fallen in a former Canadian war against the French, and the colony of Massachusetts had set up a monument to him in Westminster Abbey. Lord Howe himself had made great exertions for the reconciliation of the colonies with the mother country, and the family seem to have been popular among the Americans. Yet it was a measure of doubtful wisdom to make the same men commanders of the forces and commissioners for pacification. Each duty was likely to interfere with the other, and, as a matter of fact, it would seem that Howe's overtures might have been listened to if he had not been at the head of the army, and moreover that he was not anxious, when he had secured a military advantage, to follow it up with the utmost vigor and promptitude.

In August the British force disembarked on Long Island. That island was the key of New York. It was held by the Americans under General Putnam, who was stationed with about eight thousand men at Brooklyn, a strong piece of ground just opposite the city of New York, and separated from it by the East River. Putnam suffered himself to be surrounded, and his troops were defeated with great loss, under the eyes of Washington, who saw the battle from the opposite shore. If Howe had followed up his suc-

cess, it might have been nearly fatal to the American cause. But he hesitated, and Washington succeeded in getting his whole force safely across the East River. For forty-eight hours, it is said, he never slept, and scarcely even dismounted. With such care and good order was the retreat managed. that it was not detected by the enemy till it was complete. The British themselves allowed that the manner in which this was executed did great credit to the military skill of Washington. In another engagement a few days later, in front of New York, the Americans were again defeated. time, there is little doubt, that many of the Americans behaved with great cowardice. Probably the defeat at Brooklyn had utterly shattered their confidence. After this Washington made no attempt to hold New York. and on the 15th of September the British soldiers entered the town unopposed. Here again it was thought that Howe did not follow up his advantage as he might have done against the retreating Americans. During these operations a conference was held between Lord Howe and three commissioners from Congress. The meeting was a friendly one, and Lord Howe expressed his sincere wish to befriend America, but nothing likely to lead to peace could be arranged.

Washington now adopted an entirely new policy. It was clearly useless to oppose his undisciplined troops to the British. Accordingly he determined to avoid a general engagement, and to content himself with petty skirmishes, in which defeat would not be fatal, while success would give his soldiers experience and confidence. In this policy he was helped by the singular want of energy shown by the British commanders. pitched battle was almost sure to have resulted in their favor, and though one decisive victory might almost have settled the war, yet no attempt was made to bring on a general engagement. Washington was suffered to fall back beyond the Delaware, leaving the whole country between that river and the Hudson in the hands of the British. But though the British had not turned their superiority to full account, yet the cause of America never looked more hopeless than it did at this time. The American troops were no longer, as they were at Boston, in a country whence they could draw ready and plentiful supplies. The three middle States, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, were, as I have said, throughout the war the least faithful to the American cause. The contrast between Washington's undisciplined, ill-supplied, and retreating troops, and the well-drilled and triumphant British army must have strengthened the feeling in favor of Great So completely did the invading forces seem to have gained the command of the country, that the Congress fled from Philadelphia in fear of an immediate attack. Washington's army was dwindling from day to day, as many of the men had served their time and would not re-enlist. Lee, one of his best officers, was surprised in his quarters, and taken prisoner.

To complete the misfortunes of the Americans, Parker and Clinton, aftertheir discomfiture in Carolina, had proceeded against Rhode Island and occupied it. The tide, however, soon turned. In December, Washington made



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE,

a bold dash across the Delaware, and cut off a whole British detachment at Trenton, taking a thousand prisoners and scarcely losing a single man himself. Encouraged by this, he fell unexpectedly on the rear of Cornwallis's. army and inflicted considerable loss on it. He then threw out scattered detachments, who overran the country, taking one post after another, till at last the British held only two places, Brunswick and Amboy, south of the Hudson. The effect of this campaign was most disastrous to the British. The Tories, who were numerous in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, found themselves left to the mercy of their enemies. Few would join the British standard when it had proved so incapable of protecting them. Moreover, the conduct of the British troops, and still more that of their allies, had not been such as to win the friendship of the inhabitants.

During the spring of 1777 both armies kept quiet. Washington, as before, avoided a pitched battle, while the British contented themselves with destroying some of the American magazines. In some of the skirmishes which ensued, great daring was shown on each side, especially by General Arnold. The Americans obtained one success which gave them special

satisfaction. By a bold stroke they seized Prescott, a British general, in his quarters, and carried him off. This capture they considered an equivalent for the loss of General Lee the year before. In June, Howe began his operations against Philadelphia. Prevented from marching straight on that place through New Jersey, he embarked, sailed southwards into the Chesapeake Bay, and proceeded up the Elk river to a spot about seventy miles from Philadelphia. Washington was at first puzzled by Howe's embarkation, and did not know at what part of the



AN ARMY FORGE,

coast the British were aiming. Finally he drew up his troops on the Brandywine, a stream some thirty miles from Philadelphia, and there awaited Howe. Through the mistake of one of Washington's subordinates, Lord Cornwallis was allowed to cross the river, and to fall upon the right flank of the Americans before they were ready for an attack. After a sharp engagement, the Americans were defeated with the loss of about one thousand men and many pieces of artillery. No further attempt was made to hold Philadelphia, and on the 26th of September the British entered the city. The Americans, foreseeing that they might lose Philadelphia, had taken various precautions to block the navigation of the river below it, by sinking ships, placing barriers across, and erecting batteries on the banks. These, however, were all removed by the British. Their defeat at Brandywine and the loss of Philadelphia do not seem to have dispirited the Americans as much as might have been expected. The events of the previous year had taught them with what speed a seemingly brilliant success might be reversed,

and that it was harder for the British to hold a district than to conquer it. Moreover they had probably seen enough of Howe to know that he would not follow up his victory promptly and vigorously. Washington soon showed that he had not lost confidence either in himself or in his troops. A large portion of the British army was at Germantown, a village six miles from Philadelphia. Washington marched against them and, helped by a fog, took them by surprise. At first the battle seemed likely to be a complete victory for the assailants, but the British rallied, the Americans fell into confusion, which was made worse by the fog, and finally they retreated. leaving the British in possession of the field. The British loss was about five hundred, the American more than double. Nevertheless, the result of the battle seems to have been looked on by the Americans as encouraging. Their troops had attacked the British in superior force, and that for a while with success. Most of their victories before had been surprises, or had consisted in defending themselves behind earthworks or fortifications. the battle of Germantown, though unimportant in itself, was looked on in some measure as a turning-point. The French especially deemed it a proof of greater military prowess than they had yet given the Americans credit for. After this no further operation of any importance took place before the two armies went into winter quarters.

Though the condition of Washington and his army was on the whole more hopeful than it had been in the summer of 1776, yet it was in many respects deplorable. Many of the men were without the ordinary necessaries of life. They had neither shoes, blankets, nor shirts. As Washington said, they literally served in the field, since most of them had no tents to cover them. So badly off were they for supplies, that Washington at one time declared that the army would soon have "to starve, to dissolve, or to disperse in quest of food." The same evil which had beset Washington at the outset still went on-the system, namely, of short enlistments. Till he had an army definitely enlisted for the whole war, Washington felt that he never could achieve any great success. Moreover, the recruiting was hindered by the system which allowed each State to decide for itself the terms on which its men should serve. Some States gave large bounties, others small, and, as might have been expected, the latter got but few recruits, and those discontented. Another grievance, against which Washington protested strongly and repeatedly, was the want of a system of halfpay. Thus the officers could never look upon their profession as affording them a provision for life, and without this few could feel any real and lasting attachment to the service. This and other measures for the improvement and relief of the army, were hindered by the extreme dread which Congress had of the growth of a military despotism. It was especially opposed to the system of half-pay, as tending to establish a privileged class,





Winter Gamp at Valley Forge.

Selniar Hess, Publisher.

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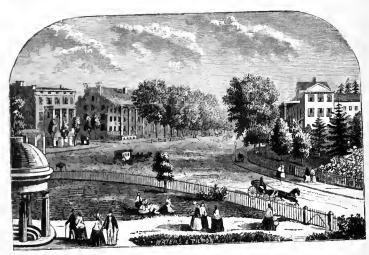


Winter Gamps wit Hallow Jorge

and to weaken those principles of liberty and equality on which the government rested. Under all these trials, Washington's moderation and patience never failed. He remonstrated with Congress on their inactivity, but always in a dignified and temperate tone. When compelled to levy supplies by force, he did his utmost to make his demands as little exacting and annoying as might be. No failure or disappointment betrayed him into harshness or injustice to his subordinates. No shadow of jealousy ever seems to have crossed his mind. All who deserved praise received it, heartily and generously bestowed, while no man was ever more indifferent to his own just claims to honor.

In the meantime operations of great importance had been going forward in the north. In June, 1777, a force of seven thousand men, under the command of General Burgoyne, set out from Canada for the invasion of the Northern States. Their plan was to march down the valley of the Hudson and so cut off New England from the rest of America. Amongst Burgoyne's troops was a force of Indians, the first that had been used on either side in any of the regular operations of this war. Their want of discipline and their unfitness for regular service made them of little use to the British, while the cruelties of which they were guilty emaged the Americans and greatly embittered the contest. It must be said in justice to Burgoyne that he did his best to restrain his savage allies. Nor had the Americans much right to complain of the employment of the Indians, since it would seem that they themselves were willing enough to enlist them if the British had not been beforehand with them. At first things went well with Burgoyne. Ticonderoga and other strong places on the frontier were taken, partly, it was thought, through the incapacity of their commanders. But before long the difficulties of Burgoyne's situation became manifest. He had to march through a country of forests and swamps, where no supplies could be got, and thus the troops had to carry everything with them. Moreover, the British were not strong enough in numbers to keep up communications with Canada. Gates, who was in command of the American army in the north, was a man of no great ability, but he was ably seconded by Arnold. The first check that Burgoyne received was in August, at Bennington, where two detachments of his troops, sent off to seize an American magazine, were attacked successively by General Starke before they could unite, and both utterly defeated. Encouraged by this and urged by the immediate pressure of invasion, the New Englanders flocked to Gates's standard, and he was soon at the head of a large, well-armed, and active, though undisciplined force. In September and October a number of fierce engagements took place in the neighborhood of Saratoga, in all of which the British suffered heavy loss, though they held their ground. But in their condition an undecided battle was as fatal as a defeat. General Clinton was to have marched from New York and to

have joined Burgoyne. He was hindered in starting by want of suppnes. Like Burgoyne, he obtained some success at the outset, but the delay in starting proved fatal. With his troops surrounded, worn out with hardships and long marches, and reduced to the greatest straits for supplies, Burgoyne had no choice but to surrender. Gates granted him liberal terms. The British troops were not to be treated as ordinary prisoners of war, but were to be allowed to return to England on condition of not serving again



SARATOGA.

in America. The officers were to be admitted to parole, and the regiments were to be kept together and to retain their baggage. This surrender, the Convention of Saratoga, as it was called, has been usually looked on as the great turning-point in the War of Independence. Hitherto the result of the war seemed doubtful, inclining perhaps rather in favor of the British. Now it became clear that the success of the Americans was merely a question of time.

The treatment of the Saratoga prisoners, or, as they were called, the Convention troops, was in no wise creditable to the Americans. Instead of being properly quartered, as had been promised, they were crowded together into close barracks, regardless of rank. They were also broken up into several detachments. The straitened circumstances of the Americans were urged in excuse of these breaches of agreement, but it would seem that the difficulty might have been got over. The letters of Jefferson, written at the time, show that he looked on this affair as a blot on the honor of his country. Finally, the troops were not allowed to sail, although the British furnished transports for them, on the ground that no time was fixed for the fulfilment of the treaty, and that there was a difference between refusing and merely delaying their departure. Throughout the whole of the war the treatment of prisoners generally was a matter of frequent, and seemingly of just, complaint on both sides. The British in some cases claimed the right of treating the Americans, not as prisoners of war, but as rebels, and this led to retaliation.

The most important immediate result of the American success was the conclusion of an alliance with France. As we have seen, one of the first steps taken by Congress was to send three commissioners, Deane, Lee, and

Franklin, to France. The choice of Franklin was in many ways a happy one. There was at that time a strong passion for natural science in France, and Franklin's attainments in that study made him popular and admired there. The Americans were less fortunate in his colleague Deane. He caused much trouble by entering into various contracts in the name of Congress without any sufficient authority. For a time the French government confined itself to secretly helping the Americans with money and arms. One form in which the friendship of the French for America showed itself, though well meant, was very inconvenient. Many young and inexperienced Frenchmen volunteered their services to the Americans. Their ignorance of the English language

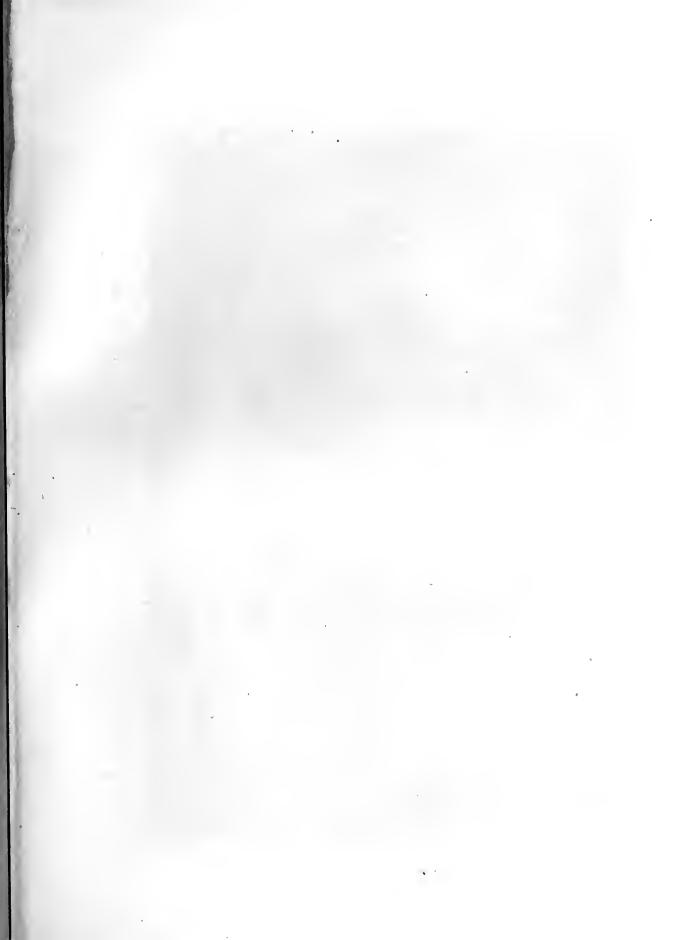


LAFAYETTE.

made them utterly useless, while their promotion was a constant source of jealousy and dissatisfaction in the American army. To this there was one notable exception, the Marquis of Lafayette. The Americans had besides the assistance of an able German soldier, Baron Steuben, who was an experienced soldier, and, though ignorant of the English language, did good service in drilling and disciplining the American troops. feyette was a young man of high family. Inflamed with enthusiasm at the sight of a people fighting for their freedom, he crossed to America in spite of the opposition of his friends and kinsfolk. His courage and other noble qualities endeared him to Washington, and he took a prominent part in military operations during the latter years of the war. even greater service by enlisting the sympathies of the French court and nation in favor of America. So persistent and so successful was he in this that some one said that it was well that he did not want the furniture of Versailles for his beloved Americans, as the king could never have refused it. During the first two years of the war, the French had not faith enough in the strength and perseverance of the Americans to enter

But with the defeat of Burgoyne and the into an alliance with them. battle of Germantown this feeling changed, and in February, 1778, a treaty was signed. Each nation promised to help the other in defensive and offensive operations. The war was to be carried on in support of the freedom, sovereignty, and independence of the United States. conquests in America were to belong to the Americans; all in the West India Islands to France. Neither nation was to conclude a separate peace. The French alliance was, in a military point of view, an undoubted gain to America. Without it, the war might have been prolonged for many years. It gave the Americans the one thing that they needed, a fleet. As long as the British had command of the sea, they could move from point to point, and could attack any part of the coast before the Americans could march to its defence. The alliance, however, had its drawbacks. It drew America into the whirlpool of European polities, in which it had no natural share or interest. Moreover, it greatly strengthened the hostility of the British, and made enemies of many who had hitherto been lukewarm or even friendly.

For more than a year after the Declaration of Independence the affairs of America made little stir in England. The declaration, if it had united America, had united England too, and many who before had been opposed to the ministry now acquiesced in its policy. But in the spring of 1778 Chatham returned to parliament, and his voice was at once raised against the ministry. He was, indeed, strongly opposed to the separation of America from Great Britain; but he was quite as strongly opposed to the means hitherto used for preventing that separation. In one of his most eloquent speeches he denounced the policy of the ministry, who had armed the Indians against men of English blood. When the defeat of Burgoyne was known, the feeling against the ministry became general. Hitherto the opponents of the ministry had denounced the folly and injustice of an attempt to coerce the Americans; now they began to insist on its hopeless-The ministry itself was in a state of weakness and confusion. Lord George Germaine had resigned his office in consequence of quarrels with Carleton and Howe. Lord North, who was now convinced of the hopelessness of the undertaking, would gladly have yielded to the Americans or have left office, but the king would not hear of either. In February, Lord North so far changed his former policy as to bring in two bills, one pledging the English government never to impose a direct tax on the colonies, the other to send out five commissioners to treat with the Americans, with full power to suspend all Acts passed since 1763. Both bills were carried, and the commissioners went out, but, like Howe two years before, they could do nothing. Three or four years earlier such concessions might have saved the colonies, but the time for them was past. During the course of the session, the feeling of dissatisfaction with the ministry increased. All-





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eyes turned to Chatham as the one man who might perchance save the nation. To defeat France and to conciliate America were both tasks for which in earlier days he had shown his fitness. It was not fated that his powers should be tried again. On the 7th of April he was borne fainting from the House of Lords, and in a few weeks later he died. It may well be doubted whether, even if he had lived, and if all things had favored him, he could have contrived at once to conciliate the Americans and to retain their allegiance. Though he asserted strongly the necessity of doing both, yet he does not seem himself to have seen any way in which they could be done. The scheme of conciliation which he proposed in 1775 might then have been successful, but in 1778, even the vigor of his best days could hardly have done more than prolong the struggle.

The operations of these two years were marked with little that was striking on either side. The Americans were weakened by internal jealousies and divisions. A party hostile to Washington had sprung up in the army, headed by one Conway. They attempted to injure Washington by contrasting his indecisive operations with the brilliant success of Gates. Gates, who seems to have been a weak and vain man, at last sanctioned, if he did not encourage, this intrigue. The same spirit of division showed itself in Congress. "For God's sake," Lafayette wrote from France, "prevent the Congress from disputing loudly together; nothing so much hurts the interest and reputation of America." Washington drew an equally lamentable pic-

ture of the state of affairs at Philadelphia. Writing thence he says, "Speculation, peculation, and an insatiable thirst for riches, seem to have got the better of every other consideration, and of almost every order of men; party disputes and personal quarrels are the great business of the day." This was partly due to the fact that the various States were so occupied with their own affairs, and with the formation of their own governments, that the best men were serving in State offices, instead of in Congress. The American finances too were



FORAGERS AT WORK.

in a desperate state. The notes issued by Congress had fallen to less than one-thirtieth of their nominal value; so that, as Washington said, a wagon-load of money could scarcely purchase a wagon-load of provisions. The British generals took no advantage of the demoralized state of their enemies. During the spring of 1778 the British remained inactive at Philadelphia; and in June they abandoned that city, and gathered together their forces at New York, to be ready for an invading

force from France. In the West, small bands of Tories and Indians wrought great damage, destroying whole villages, and doing much to irritate, though nothing to subdue, the Americans. During the year, the French alliance bore but little fruit. A fleet was sent out under Admiral d'Estaing; but, after staying for some time in Boston harbor, it sailed off to attack the British in the West Indies. A scheme proposed by Lafayette for the invasion of Canada was rejected by Congress. The French themselves did not look favorably upon this scheme; and it is noteworthy that throughout the war they showed no wish that Canada should be taken from the British: this, no doubt, was because the French thought it better for themselves that all Northern America should not be united under a single government.

Clinton, who in the spring of 1778, succeeded Howe in command of the British forces, resolved to attack the Southern States. Hitherto, since the opening year of the war, they had been left unassailed. Clinton thought that they would be therefore less prepared for an attack than the Northern colonies. At the same time, as their resources had not been much impaired, the Americans depended mainly on them for supplies, and thus Clinton hoped that a blow there would be specially felt. At first, results seemed to make good Clinton's hopes. In November, 1778, a small force under Colonel Campbell took Savannah, drove the American forces out of Georgia, and



A BULLET-PROOF IN THE WOODS.

British government. Campbell was soon after succeeded by General Prevost. He earried the war into South Carolina, defeated General Lincoln, one of the ablest of the American commanders, and seized Port Royal, an island favorably placed for an attack on Charlestown. In the autumn of 1779, Lincoln was joined by D'Estaing, with a land force of about five thousand men, and they proceeded to attack Savannah. All attempts, however, to take the place, by bombardment, storm and blockade, were

alike unsuccessful; and in November D'Estaing departed from America. During this time other attacks were made by the British on Virginia and the other middle States. Much damage was done, and many places were taken, but Washington refused to be led into a pitched battle, and no decisive blow was struck. The only set-off against these British successes was the capture of Stony Point, by Wayne, an American general. This place had been lately taken from the Americans. Wayne, by a forced march, surprised the place, and earried it at the point of the bayonet. Though the British soon recovered Stony Point, yet Wayne's success seems to have done

a good deal to encourage the Americans. In the spring of 1780, the British, commanded by Clinton himself, attacked Charlestown. The commander of the American fleet, instead of waiting to oppose the British at the mouth of the harbor, sank some of his ships to block the entrance, and retreated with the rest. The British fleet made its entrance without much difficulty; and on the 11th of May the place surrendered. The garrison were allowed to march out with the honors of war. Congress now sent Gates to take command in the South. The success which attended him in the North now deserted him, and he was utterly defeated by Lord Cornwallis, whom Clinton had left in command. Other smaller actions took place, in all of which the British were successful. It seemed as if the British had completely mastered the Southern States. But, as in New Jersey in 1777, it was soon seen that it was easier for the English to conquer than to hold. Cornwallis and Lord Rawdon, who was next in command, both enraged the Americans by their harsh treatment of those who had opposed the British government.

In the North, the chief event of the year 1779 was the utter and ignominious defeat of an American force which had attacked a newly-formed British post at Penobscot. A fleet of thirty-seven ships had been prepared at considerable expense by the State of Massachusetts, and placed under the command of one Saltonstall. At the first sight of the British fleet he fled, and then, finding escape impossible, blew up the whole of his ships, save two which were captured. During the spring and summer of 1780 no important

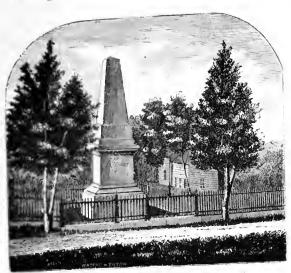
operations took place in the North; but later in the year the Americans narrowly escaped a very severe blow. Arnold, who had so distinguished himself before Quebec and against Burgoyne, was in command of a fort called West Point, on the Hudson. As it commanded that river, the place was of great importance. Various circumstances helped to make Arnold dissatisfied and disaffected. He had been tried by court-martial on the charge of having used his official power to extort money from citizens, and of having applied public funds and property to his own uses. On the last of these charges he was found guilty. Moreover, his extravagant habits had got him into difficul-



MAJOR ANDRE.

ties. This, and the feeling that his services had been undervalued, led him into the design of going over to the British. The agent appointed by the British to arrange the treason was Major André, a young officer of great ability and promise. Everything was in train for the surrender of West Point, when André was captured within the American lines with a pass

Papers found upon him disclosed the plot. Arnold had got warning before he could be seized, and fled down the Hudson in a swift



PAULDING'S MONUMENT.

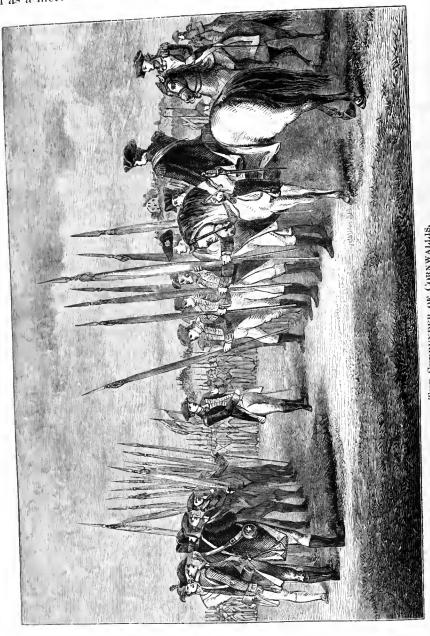
rowing-boat. André was tried by court-martial, and hanged as a spy. This sentence was fully approved by Washington, who resisted all attempts to lighten the sentence. By some the execution of André has been reckoned a blot on the fame of the Americans, He, it is said, was acting as an authorized agent, under a flag of truce, and with the formal protection of Arnold, and so was entitled by the laws of war to pass in safety. On the other hand, it has been urged that the purpose

for which he came, that, namely, of arranging an act of treachery, deprived him of all such rights; and that Arnold's protection was worthless, as being given by one whom André and the British knew to be a traitor. Americans offered to release André on one condition: namely, that Arnold should be surrendered in his stead; but the British would not hear of this. During the rest of the war Arnold served in the British army, but with no great distinction.

Arnold's treason was not the only danger of that kind which threatened the Americans. On New Year's day, 1781, thirteen hundred of the troops in Pennsylvania, wearied by want of food, clothing, and pay, and by the indifference of Congress to their complaints, broke into open mutiny, killed two of their officers, and declared their purpose of marching to Philadelphia to obtain their rights by force. Washington, who understood the justice of some of their demands and the extent of their provocation, sent instructions to General Wayne, who was in command in Pennsylvania, not to resist the mutineers by force, but to get from them a statement of their griev-At the same time he persuaded Congress to send commissioners to confer with the mutineers. One of their grievances was that they were not relieved from service, though the period for which they had enlisted had expired. On this point the commission gave way, though by doing so they ran the risk of weakening the American forces. mutineers took their discharge, but most of them returned to service. Sir Henry Clinton had supposed that this would be a favorable opportunity for drawing away the discontented forces from their allegiance, and sent two messengers to treat with them. But, so far from listening to these proposals, the mutineers seized the messengers and handed them over to the American commander, by whom they were put to death. The spirit of disaffection seemed likely to spread, and another mutiny broke out in New Jersey. This time, however, the government was prepared. A force of six hundred men held in readiness against such an emergency, was sent against them. The mutineers were taken by surprise, and two of the ringleaders tried by court-martial and shot. This put an end for the present to all outward show of disaffection.

For a while Cornwallis followed up his success at Charleston. His plan was to leave Lord Rawdon in command in South Carolina, and to march through North Carolina and Virginia, so as to join Clinton in New York. To do this it was necessary to take a line of march a considerable distance from the sea, where the streams were small enough to be easily crossed. This cut him off from all communication with the coast, and forced him to march through a country ill-provided with supplies and difficult of passage. In his march through Carolina he was opposed by the American forces under General Greene. This man, a Quaker by religion and a blacksmith by trade, had served as a private soldier in the early years of the war, and had risen by merit to the command which he now Unlike Gates, he stood high in the confidence and esteem of held. Washington. He showed considerable skill in his opposition to Cornwallis. In an engagement between some irregular American troops under General Morgan, and a part of Cornwallis's army under Colonel Tarleton, the British were defeated with considerable loss, but in a pitched battle soon after at Guilford the British were, after a stubborn contest, successful, Cornwallis, however, like Howe in the middle States, had other foes than the American soldiers to deal with. Even those inhabitants who professed themselves loyal showed no zeal or energy in supporting him. Horses could not be got, and thus Cornwallis was compelled to destroy all his wagons but four kept for the sick, and all his stores except those absolutely needed for the bare support of his men. In the meantime the Americans had received a great addition of strength. In July, 1780, a French fleet arrived, with a force of six thousand soldiers on board. Thus strengthened, in the spring of 1781, Washington was in a position to strike a decisive blow, and he felt that such an effort was needed to restore the spirits and confidence of his countrymen. For a time he doubted whether to attack Clinton at New York, or to march southward against Cornwallis. The arrival of a fresh fleet of twenty-eight ships from the West Indies, probably decided him to adopt the latter course. For a considerable time Washington made as if he would attack New York, so as to deter Clinton from

marching southward to join Cornwallis, and when the American and French forces at length set out towards Virginia, Clinton for a while regarded their march as a mere feint. Meanwhile Lafayette had been sent against Corn-



THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS

wallis, not to engage in a pitched battle, but to harass him and hinder his movements. In this Lafayette succeeded. In September, Washington marched into Virginia with a force of some twenty thousand men, against seven thousand under Cornwallis. The position of Cornwallis was not unlike that of Burgoyne at Saratoga. He was stationed at Yorktown. The chief advantage of this position was that it might enable Clinton's force from New York to join him by sea. But Clinton was delayed for a fortnight in setting out, and, as in Burgoyne's case, arrived too late to be of any service. On the 1st of October, Cornwallis found himself completely surrounded by land, and cut off from the sea by the French fleet. Many of his troops were rendered useless by sickness, and a desperate attempt to cross the Bay and force his way northward to New York was stopped by a storm. The Americans too were well supplied with heavy artillery, and the slender earthworks of Yorktown gave no shelter against their fire. A sally, in which two of the American batteries were destroyed, only to be at once repaired, showed the hopelessness of Cornwallis's position, and on the 17th of October he surrendered. This great defeat was in reality the conclusion of the war. Petty hostilities were carried on during the summer of 1782, but the defeat of Cornwallis left no question as to the final result.

Nothing has been said as yet of the American navy. As it took no part in any of the important operations of the war, it seems better to consider it separately. At the outset of the war the Americans were even less prepared by sea than by land. They had a militia, and their wars with the Indians and the French had given both officers and men some experience and skill. But at sea they had no such advantages. It is an easier matter, too, to drill and arm active and able-bodied men than to build a fleet. But, though there was no possibility of the Americans coping with the British navy, yet they were not altogether powerless on the The ports of the northern colonies, especially of New England, had trained up a race of hardy and ex-



perienced seamen. Piracy too was rife on the American coast and in the West Indies, and thus the Americans had sailors ready to hand, well fitted for privateering service. Whenever the Americans attempted any combined operations by sea against the British, they failed, and, till the French fleet came to their help, their seacoast was almost at the mercy of the enemy. But a number of small vessels, some fitted out by Congress, others provided

with letters of marque, did great damage to British traders. So great was the terror which they struck that the rate of insurance, even for voyages between England and Holland, rose considerably. The most noteworthy commander at sea was Captain Paul Jones, an Englishman by birth, but in the service of the American government, who carried terror along the English coast, and even went so far as to burn the shipping in the harbor of Whitehaven.

Beside Cornwallis's defeat there were other things to make England eager for peace. The country was now engaged in war with France, Spain. and Holland, an allied fleet had been in the English Channel, and had threatened the Irish coast. The news of the surrender at Yorktown reached England on the 25th of November, and two days later, at the opening of parliament, the king announced the evil tidings and called on the nation for "vigorous, animated, and united exertions." This was the signal for an attack on the government, led in the Upper House by Shelburne, in the Lower by Burke. The latter scoffed at the folly of attempting to assert our rights in America, and likened it to the conduct of a man who should insist on shearing a wolf. Evil tidings from other quarters kept pouring in. Minorca, a British station and the best harbor in the Mediterranean, was in February surrendered to the French. In the same month Conway, who had been among the first to take up the cause of America in Parliament, brought forward a motion for giving over the war. Soon after Lord North, seeing that he could no longer reckon on the support of the House, resigned. His successor, Rockingham, died in the course of the year. Shelburne then became Prime Minister. Chatham, whose follower and disciple he professed himself, had spoken strongly against separation, but now he felt that the struggle was hopeless, and negotiations for peace went forward. There was little to hinder the settlement of terms. America only wanted independence; England sincerely wished for peace; and each side was ready to grant what the other asked for. There were only two points on which there seemed likely to be any difficulty. The British government was unwilling to give the Americans the right of using the Newfoundland fisheries, and also required that the American government should compensate the loyalists for their losses during the war. On both these points the British government finally gave way. A demand made by the Americans for the cession of Canada was quietly abandoned. Crushed though England was, there was no likelihood of her making such a concession. All the British territory, however, between Georgia and the Mississippi was ceded, while, by a treaty made with Spain at the same time, England gave up the Mississippi and Florida. The treaty was arranged, though not formally signed, without consulting the French government. The treaty between France and

America provided that neither should make a separate peace with England. The Americans got over this by making the treaty conditional only, and agreeing that it should not be formally signed till England and France had come to terms. The French not unnaturally thought this an evasion of the spirit, if not of the letter of their treaty. The Americans, however, justified themselves on the ground that the French, in their proposals for peace, had shown themselves indifferent to the advantage of America. No open breach, however, followed between the allies. On the 3d of September peace was signed, and the United States of America became an independent power.



## CHAPTER XX.

## THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

we have seen, the Articles of Confederation, although settled by Congress in 1777, were not accepted by all the States till 1781. The main hindrance to their acceptance was the claim of some of the larger States to unoccupied lands. Some of the old grants from the English erown reached to the South Sea, that is to say, they were practically unlimited towards the west. The State most to profit by this was Virginia. In May, 1779, the delegates from Maryland, instructed by the government of that State, op-

posed the claim of Virginia to this vacant soil, and Virginia, influenced by the example of New York, gave up her claims, so that in 1781 the terms of confederation were finally accepted.

The history of the war has served in a great measure to show the short-comings of the Confederation. These mainly came from one great defect; its inability to force the citizens to comply with its wishes. After the war this was even more felt. Congress had no power of maintaining an army or navy, no control over trade, no means of raising public funds, and no mode of enforcing its will but by an appeal to arms. In the words of Washington, it was "little more than a shadow without the substance." Moreover, from its want of power, it was despised and neglected by those who should have been its chief supports. The ablest men were occupied with the politics of their own States. Congress consisted of little more than twenty members. The evils of this were soon seen. In 1786, after some difficulty, twelve states assented to a general system of import duties. The thirteenth however, New York, resisted, and thus one State was able to hinder a meas-

ure which was needful for the credit and security of the whole nation. So, too, articles in the treaty with England were set at nought by the different. State governments. The treaty provided that all debts incurred up to that time between citizens of either country should still hold good; that no person should suffer any loss or damage for any part which he might have taken in the war. Laws, however, were passed by the various State legislatures in direct defiance of these articles, and all that Congress could do was to exhort them to annul these laws and to comply with the treaty. Congress too showed itself unable to deal with great questions such as were sure to come before a National Government. The inhabitants of the Southern States, and of the newly opened western territory, held that it was of the greatest importance to keep the right of navigating the Mississippi. Spain, which possessed the lower waters of the river, refused to grant this right, and, in the negotiations which followed, Congress was thought to show a want of spirit, and an indifference to the welfare of the nation.

Moreover, there were signs of disaffection which showed that the handsof Government needed to be strengthened. In 1781, as we have seen, the inattention of Congress to the wants of the army had led to a mutiny. In the next year a proposal was made by a colonel in the army, representing, as hehimself professed, a large number of his brother officers, to make Washington king. The defence for this proposal was the alleged weakness of the Government. Though Washington met the proposal with a prompt and utter refusal, he accompanied this with a promise to do all that he could tosecure the just claims of the army. In spite of the mutiny and of repeated warnings given by Washington, Congress showed an utter want of liberality, and even of honesty and justice, in its dealings with the army. 1780, after many difficulties and great discussion, Congress promised the officers at the end of the war half-pay for life. But after the acceptance of the Articles of Confederation, no law was passed providing for a fulfilmentof this engagement. A meeting of the officers was held, and an address was issued, setting forth the gross injustice of this breach of contract, and, but for the courage and wisdom of Washington, it is likely that a mutiny would have broken out, fatal perhaps to the newly-gained freedom of America. In the end the officers forwarded a temperate remonstrance, and Congress passed a resolution granting them five years' full pay after the disbanding of the army. An event which followed soon after showed the unreasonable distrust with which the nation regarded that very army whose toil and sacrifices had saved it. A society was formed, called the Cincinnati, to consist of the officers who had served in the war, and their descendants. This was to be a friendly association to keep alive among the members the memory of their joint service, and to establish a fund for the relief of its poorer members, their widows and orphans. Washington consented to be the firstpresident of the society, and this fact, it might have been thought, was a safeguard against any danger. Yet so strong was the popular dread of a military despotism that the establishment of the society met with wide-spread disapproval. So violent was the attack, that Washington thought it necessary to persuade the members to do away with hereditary membership, and to alter other features in the scheme. Even so, public displeasure, though lessened, was not altogether removed.

Besides the supposed danger from the army, there were other and better founded causes of fear. No State had suffered more by the war than Massachusetts. Its fisheries and its commerce were destroyed. Taxes had increased, while the means of paying them had lessened, and, as was natural in a time of distress, private debts had accumulated. Thus there came into being a distressed and discontented class, ready for any change. Public

meetings were held at which the doctrine was laid down that property ought to be common, because all had helped equally to prevent it from being confiscated by the English government. The malcontents also proposed to do away with the State Council, and to abolish all taxes. In 1786 an open insurrection broke out, and fifteen hundred men took up arms headed by one Shays, who had served as a captain in the late war. Through the firmness and courage of the governor. James Bowdoin, the insurrection was suppressed, but the most alarming thing was that Congress, although it raised troops in case such an emergency should again arise, vet did not venture openly to declare the object for which these troops were enlisted. In short,



it dared not assert either the will or the power to deal with the rebellion.

In this state of things, thoughtful men began to see that, if the United States were to exist as a nation, there must be a central government with direct power both in internal and external affairs; able to carry on foreign negotiations in the name of the nation, to issue commands to the citizens of the State, and to enforce these commands, if necessary, and to punish those who neglected them. The first man clearly to perceive, and boldly to declare this was Alexander Hamilton, one of the most far-seeing and courageous statesmen that any country ever produced. He had already distin-

guished himself in the war as aide-de-camp to Washington, and at a still earlier time by a series of essays on the rights of the colonies. But, though he had been among the most ardent supporters of American independence, no one saw more clearly the dangers of the new system. So highly did he value a strong central government, that frequently through his life he was denonnced as the advocate of monarchy, and the enemy of his country's liberties. This charge was without the least foundation. Hamilton did indeed



MARTHA WASHINGTON.

believe that the English government was in itself, and where it was possible, the best system, but he saw as clearly how unfitted it was for America. He wished his countrymen to copy, not the monarchical form of government, but so much of the English system as would make the constitution stable and lasting. In 1785 an opportunity offered for introducing such a change as he wished for. In the spring of that year commissioners were appointed from Virginia and Maryland to settle certain difficulties about the navigation of the Potomac river and Chesapeake Bay. They met at Mount Vernon, Washington's house, and there a plan was proposed for maintaining a

fleet on the Chesapeake, and for settling commercial duties. This led to the proposal made by the Assembly of Virginia for a general conference of commissioners from all the States to consider the state of trade. Hamilton say that this conference might be made the instrument of wider changes, and he persuaded New York to send commissioners, himself among them. In 1786 commissioners from five States met at Annapolis in Maryland. Hamilton laid before them a report; giving reasons why it would be well if a convention of delegates from all the States should meet to consider the state of the National Government. The proposal was adopted. It might have seemed easier and more natural to refer the matter to Congress, rather than to form a special body for this one object. But Congress no longer represented the strength and wisdom of the nation, and it was generally felt that the task would be beyond it. On the other hand, it shows the wisdom of those who proposed the great measure that they so carried it out as not to weaken the authority of the existing government—that they did nothing to sweep away, or even to weaken, the old constitution till the new was ready.

In 1787 the Convention met at Philadelphia. It is searcely too much to say that no body of men ever met together for a task of such vast importance to the welfare of mankind, or needing so much the highest powers of statesmanship. The President of the Convention was Washington. At the end, of the war he had retired into private life, and had ardently believed and hoped that his career as a public man was over. So strongly did he wish for privacy, that he at first declined the presidency of the Convention. But the insurrection in Massachusetts showed him the dangerous condition of the country, and the need which she had for the service of every loyal and able citizen, and he accepted the post. In sending delegates to the Convention each State seems to have put out its utmost strength. But few statesmen of note, Patrick Henry included, were away. His hostility to any change in the government was so intense that his presence could have been nothing but a hindrance. The mere summoning of a Convention implied that something was to be done, and it was no place for those who were against all change. Hamilton, though he was in a great measure the cause of the Convention being called together, and though he afterward, by his arguments, did much to get the new Constitution accepted, yet had little to do with framing it. He differed widely in his views from the great bulk of the nation, and he seems to have seen the hopelessness of any attempt to force his opinions upon it. The man who was, above all others, the author of the Constitution was James Madison, of Virginia. He was a man of peculiarly moderate temper, able to understand both sides, and to sympathize in some measure with each, and he was therefore specially fitted to deal with a question which could only be managed by a compromise. For it must never be forgotten that the American Constitution did not represent

what any one party considered the best possible system, but was framed by each party yielding something. The difficulties before the Convention were various. First, there was the one great obstacle, the wide difference of opinion as to what the new Government should be. Some wished to see it completely override the various State governments. This view was expressed by Governor Morris, one of the ablest of Hamilton's supporters, who openly said that he regarded the State governments as serpents whose teeth must be drawn. Others were opposed to anything which could tend even to weaken the State governments. Besides this, there were other, though perhaps lesser, difficulties. All except the men of extreme views felt that there must be a strong central government, able at least to conduct the foreign affairs of the nation, and possessing such authority over the citizens



Janu Medison

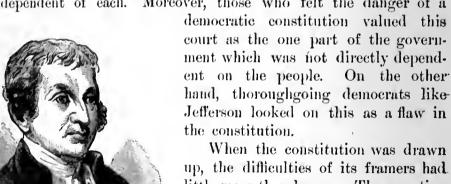
as was needful for that purpose. At the same time, all wished to preserve the State governments. To combine these two objects was no easy matter. The differences between the various States greatly increased the difficulty. Some depended on trade, others on agriculture. Here every thing was done by free labor, here by slaves. Moreover, the forms of law procedure and the rules as to the right of voting were different in the different States. Above all was the great difficulty of dealing with small and large States, of giving due weight to the former without sacrificing the latter. All these difficulties could only be got over by some system of compromise, by a constitution, that is to say, which should in almost every point fall somewhat

short of what each party would consider the best probable plan. Even so, nothing but a strong sense of the evils from which the nation was suffering, and of the dangers of its present condition, could have led the different parties to make such sacrifices of their own wishes as were needful. On one point, and one only, were all agreed, namely, that the new government must be republican and democratic; that is to say, that the rulers must be chosen by the mass of the people, and be really answerable to the people for their conduct while in office.

Two rough schemes were laid before the Convention, one by Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, the other by William Patterson, of New Jersey.

The former, which, with some changes, was finally accepted, represented the views of those who wanted a strong central government, the Federal party, as they were afterwards called; the other, those of their opponents. Hamilton also brought forward a scheme, but this went so far beyond the wishes and views of the mass of the Federals, that it met with no Finally Randolph's scheme was adopted, and the Convention applied itself to casting it into shape. The result, with some changes, has continued to be the Constitution of the United States to the present -day. The chief provisions were as follows: The government was to be in the hands of a President and Congress. Congress was to consist of two Houses, the upper called the Senate, the lower the House of Representatives. In this the Convention was no doubt influenced by the example of the State governments, and so indirectly by that of England. There was, however, this special advantage in having two Houses. It got over, as no other contrivance could have done, the difficulty resulting from the difference of size between the various States. The members of the Upper House were to be elected by the State Legislatures, those of the Lower House by the qualified electors of the various States. But in the Upper House each State was to have two senators, in the Lower the number of representatives was to be proportioned to the population of the States. Thus the smaller States were not altogether put on an equality with their larger neighbors, nor altogether subjected to them. As in the Congress of the revolution, the question how the slaves should be reckoned in apportioning the representatives gave rise to much discussion. Finally a compromise was adopted, and three-fifths of the slaves were counted as population. The power of making laws was entrusted to Congress, but the President's assent was necessary. If the President should refuse his assent to a measure, it was to be sent back to Congress, and if again passed by a majority of two-thirds in each House, it became law. The President himself was to be elected for four years. He was not to be directly elected by the people, but by electors chosen by the citizens in each State. This was introduced with the idea that it would secure a wiser and more deliberate choice than if the people voted directly. But in practice the electors have been chosen, not for their general ability, but simply to vote for this or that candidate. The number of electors for each State was to be equal to the number of senators and representatives together from that State. The manner of choosing these electors in each State was to be decided by the Legislature of that State. In most States they were chosen by the mass of the citizens; in some by the State Legislature. If two candidates for the Presidency got an equal number of votes, the House of Representatives was to vote between them, voting, not singly, but by States. If no candidate had more than half the votes, then the House of Representatives was to elect one out of the five

highest on the list. There was to be a Vice-President, who was to fill the President's place in case of a vacancy. At first the Vice-President was to be the second candidate for the Presidency, but this was found to give rise to great confusion, and after 1804 the Vice-President was chosen by a separate election, though upon the same system. Voting in all kinds of election was to be by ballot. The President was to have the appointment of all public officers, and to be commander-in-chief of the army and navy. The seat of government was to be a neutral territory belonging to none of the States. but under the direct control of Congress. This district (of Columbia) was granted by Maryland, and the seat of government is the City of Washing-There was to be one Supreme Judicial Court, presided over by a chief justice, who was appointed by the President for life. This Supreme Court was entrusted with the important task of dealing with all cases in which the enactments of Congress might clash with the enactments of the various State governments. By this means one of the great obstacles to a confederation was got over. All disputes between the two conflicting powers. the central Legislature and the State governments, were referred to a body independent of each. Moreover, those who felt the danger of a



When the constitution was drawn up, the difficulties of its framers had little more than begun. The question at once arose, how was the constitution to be put in force? Congress had no power to grant away its own authority to a new government, nor had the nation enough confidence in it to accept its decision. Accordingly the Convention resolved to lay it before the various States. The serious question then arose, what was to be done if some States accepted, some refused? Finally it was decided that, if nine

States accepted it, the constitution should take effect, and that, if any of the remaining States refused, they must be left out of the new confederation. Accordingly Conventions of the various States were summoned. The con-

test was a hard one. Great service was done to the cause of the constitution by a series of essays called the "Federalist." These were written by Hamilton, Madison, and a third Federal statesman, Jay. The struggle was most severe in New York and Virginia, but in both the constitution at length prevailed. In New York the result was mainly due to Hamilton. In Virginia, Patrick Henry opposed it with the ntmost animosity, and with the power and eloquence of his best days. It is even said that at one meeting he spoke for seven hours at a stretch. In justice to him, it should be said, as indeed it may be said of all the leading opponents of the new system, that, when the constitution was carried, they accepted it honestly and loyally. Henry in particular became conspicuous before his death as a supporter of the central government against the rights of the separate States. Rhode Island and North Carolina held out the longest, but they too at length acceded.

Washington, as all had foreseen from the outset, was called by the united voice of the nation to the Presidency. It is hardly too much to say

that, if he had not existed, the Federal Constitution would never have been accepted by all the States. In him the nation had a leader who commanded the love and confidence of his fellow-countrymen as no other man ever has. But for this extraordinary good fortune, it is unlikely that the American people, with its violent dread and hatred of monarchy, would ever have consented to the rule of a President. The new government did not long enjoy peace. In the year 1787 hostilities broke out between the inhabitants of the newly-settled western territory and the Indians there. As in such cases generally, there seem to have been acts of unprovoked and unjustifiable violence on each side. Forces were sent against the Indians in 1790 and



The Gebenon;

1791, but both were defeated with heavy loss. Both the commanders in those expeditions, General Harmer and General St. Clair, were tried for incapacity, but acquitted. In 1794 Wayne, who had distinguished himself in the War of Independence, was sent against the Indians. He defeated them in a decisive battle, and in 1795 they sued for peace. In this war the

government met with no small difficulty in enlisting an army. One party in Congress maintained that the war should be carried on solely by the border militia. Great inconvenience too was felt, as in the war with England, from the system of short enlistments. In 1794 an insurrection broke out in Pennsylvania. This spring out of the discontent felt at the imposition of a duty on spirits. In this same year Washington was reelected President. His second term of office was marked by still more serious difficulties. The relations of the States with England, France, and Spain were unfriendly. The English government refused to quit some of the western forts, on the ground that the States had not fulfilled the terms of the treaty. John Adams was sent as envoy to England, and was well received by the king. But for a while the points in dispute remained unsettled. The Spanish government refused the Americans the use of the lower waters of the Mississippi, and seized ships sailing there. Moreover. there were disputes about the boundaries of the Spanish and American territories. The manner in which peace had been made had done something to sow the seeds of discord between England and France. outbreak of the French Revolution served further to alter the relations between the two countries. The moderate party in the States stood aloof from the successful revolutionists, and looked upon the influence of that party in America as dangerous, while the Democrats, headed by Jefferson, were drawn more closely towards France. The war between England and France threw the relations of America to both nations into still greater confusion.

Before going further, it should be said that two distinct political parties had now sprung up within the United States. As we have seen, there was, at the time of the settlement of the Constitution, a State-rights party on the one side, and a Federal party, as it was called, on the other. The Staterights party always denied the right of their opponents to the name of Federalist, declaring that they were equally in favor of a Federal government; that the real question was, which system was most truly federal, and that for one party to call themselves Federalists, and their opponents Antifederalists, was begging the question. But the names, however incorrect in their origin, stuck to the parties, and so it is better to use them. The passing of the Constitution in a great measure overthrew the Anti-federal party. But, as soon as the Constitution was established, the old struggle was renewed in a slightly different form. The interpretation of the Constitution, when it came to be applied to particular cases, was almost as important as the actual form of it. The Anti-federals, on the one hand, strove to limit the power of the central government as much as possible, and to interpret the Constitution in the way most favorable to the State governments; the Federals wished in everything to strengthen the central government at the

expense of the separate States. In this, there can be no doubt that the extreme men on each side, and most, perhaps, those of the Federal party. strove to stretch the Constitution beyond what they must have known to be the wishes of its framers. It is important to understand clearly the origin and nature of these two parties, as the division between them runs on through all later American history, changing its form indeed, but still remaining in many important points the same. The Federal party was headed by Hamilton. Its main strength lay in the commercial States of the north and east, and especially among the New York merchants. The other party, with Jefferson for its leader, drew its strength mainly from the southern planters. Washington could not be said strictly to belong to either party: indeed, his neutrality was one of the points which gave the nation such confidence in him. His leanings, however, were toward the Federals. He had sought to do justice to both parties by appointing Hamilton and Jefferson the two chief secretaries of his cabinet, and making them thereby his principal advisers. The first great subject on which the two parties joined battle was the question of a national bank. This was Hamilton's project. The Anti-federals were opposed to it, as throwing too much power into the hands of government. They denied that the Constitution gave the government any power to form such an institution. Finally, the bank was Another even more serious matter, was the foreign policy of the government. As was said before, Jefferson and his followers were the friends of France; Hamilton and the Federals, of England. charges were brought against each of these statesmen, and have been repeated since, accusing them of readiness to sacrifice the interest of America to that of the European nation whom they respectively favored. But, whatever may have been the case with inferior members of the two parties, there can be no doubt that both Hamilton and Jefferson were above any such designs. Faults they both had as statesmen; but, widely as they differed in all things else, they agreed in serving their country faithfully, though on different principles, and in different ways. The ill-feeling of both parties was strengthened by the reckless conduct of Genet, whom the French revolutionary government sent as their representative to America. He sent out privateers from the American ports, and abused the American government openly for not breaking the existing laws of neutrality, where those laws favored England at the expense of France. This served to inflame both parties. So violent was the feeling called out among one section of the people that, but for Washington's firmness, they would probably have engaged the country in a war with England. A bill for stopping all trade with England was carried in Congress, and was only prevented from becoming law by the President's veto. In 1794, a treaty was made with England. Here, too, it was only Washington's influence which carried the question by a bare majority.

In 1797 Washington retired. Although his popularity was marred by the course he took about the treaty, yet he was pressed by many to stand for a third Presidency, and he probably would have been elected if he had stood. But he steadily refused, thereby setting a precedent which has been followed ever since. At the same time that he declined to stand, he issued a farewell address to his countrymen. He reminded them forcibly of the need for forgetting all distinctions and remembering only that they were Americans. "The name," he said, "of American must always exalt the just pride of patriotism more than any appellation derived from local discriminations." Following up the same line of thought, he pointed out that the difference between the northern, southern, eastern, and western States, so far from being eauses for separation were in reality only reasons for a closer union, since each quarter required to be helped, and to have its wants supplied, by the resources of the rest. After his retirement, Washington took no active part in public life, but employed himself with the management of his estates and with farming, in which he took great delight. In the next year the fear of a French war obliged the government to make military preparations, and Washington was appointed commander-in-chief. The danger, however, passed over, and the rest of his life was spent in peaceful retirement. That, however, did not last long. In the next year, 1799, a cold, brought on by exposure, carried him off after a short illness. Not only in America, but in France and even in England, the news of his death was received with marks of public sorrow. The unpopularity which his foreign policy had brought upon him passed away, and did nothing to weaken the love, gratitude, and esteem with which his countrymen have ever regarded his memory. Never in all history have such feelings been better deserved. From first to last, no selfish ambition, no desire for aggrandizement, had ever led him astray from the duty which he owed to his country. Successful leaders of revolutions have always been exposed to special temptations, and have seldom altogether resisted them. Few have been more tempted than Washington; yet none has ever passed through the ordeal so free, notmerely from guilt itself, but even from the faintest suspicion of guilt.

The election of a successor to Washington was the signal for a severe struggle between the parties. Jefferson was brought forward as the representative of the Republicans, Adams of the Federals. After a close contest the latter was elected. The Federals started another candidate, Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina. The bulk of the party wished to see Adams President, and Pinckney Vice-President, but some of the Federals who were unfriendly to Adams—Hamilton, it was thought, among them—supported Pinckney for the Presidency. The result of this manœuvring was, that Jefferson came in second, and so was Vice-President. Before Washington's retirement, Jefferson and Hamilton had both left the cabinet. Adams could



MARTHA WASHINGTON'S RECEPTION.



not have been expected to have much confidence in Hamilton, nor is it likely that Hamilton would have served under him, His position, however, outside the cabinet, was in every way unfortunate and unsatisfactory. The members of Adams's cabinet were Hamilton's followers, and completely under his guidance. His influence was always separate from, and often hostile to that of the President. At first, however, the prospects of the Federal party and of the government looked bright. The conduct of the French government was so outrageous as to disgust even those Americans who were naturally inclined to sympathize with France. When the news of the English treaty reached Paris, the American envoy was treated with great disrespect. Commissioners were sent out from America in hopes of settling the difficulty. The Directory, then at the head of French affairs, told the commissioners through private agents that the good-will of France could only be recovered by the payment of a sum of money. This demand created a great outburst of indignation in America, and a conflict seemed at hand; though war was not formally declared; an American frigate attacked and captured a French one. France, seeing that America was really roused, drew back, and in 1800 a treaty was signed between the two nations.

The conduct of France served for a while to make the Federals popular at the expense of the Republicans. But this did not last long. Adams,

though an honest and upright man and an able statesman, was vain, illtempered, and unconciliatory. Moreover, he naturally resented the secret influence which Hamilton exercised over the cabinet. Before long, Adams was at war with his whole cabinet, and the Federal party was hopelessly broken up. To complete its ruin Congress forced upon the country two most unpopular measures, the Alien Law and the Sedition Law. The former of these empowered the President to order out of the United States, at his own discretion, any alien whose presence he should judge The Sedition Law endangerous. forced penalties on any person who published false, scandalous, or malicious writings against the government, either House of Congress, or



the President. Both these laws were generally felt to be opposed to the

principles of the American nation, and they brought the government into great disrepute. Moreover, the extreme Federals, led by Hamilton, were suspected of seeking to involve the country in a war with France. The French government too became more moderate in its conduct. strong reaction sprang up in favor of the Republicans. Accordingly, when Adams again stood for the Presidency, he was beaten. The Republicans carried their two candidates, Jefferson and Aaron Burr. The latter was a profligate adventurer of bad character. The intention of the Republicans was that Jefferson should be carried as President, and Burr as Vice-President. The two, however, were equal, and the House of Representatives had to vote between them. So bitter was the feeling among the Federals against Jefferson that many of them stooped to vote for Burr, and the two were again equal. The votes were taken thirty-four times with the same result. At last one voter went over, and Jefferson became President. It should be said to the honor of Hamilton, that he opposed this disgraceful

intrigue against Jefferson.

In 1787 Congress made special provision for the admission of fresh States. This was of course necessary, as there was a vast territory to the west which was sure to be occupied sooner or later. The central government was empowered to form districts called Territories. These were to be formed, either out of soil which the nation had acquired by treaty or otherwise, or out of land voluntarily surrendered by any of the States. Territories were to be governed, each by its own inhabitants, but according to a set constitution, and were to have governors appointed by the central government. When its number of inhabitants reached sixty thousand, itmight then be admitted as a State, with the same rights as the older States. both as regards self-government and as a member of the Union. The first new State added to the Union was Vermont. This was a district to the north of Massachusetts, lying between the rivers Hudson and Connecticut. As early as 1760 disputes for its possession had arisen between New York and New Hampshire. The English government decided in favor of New York, but the people of Vermont refused to acknowledge the claim. In 1777 they applied to Congress to be admitted to the confederation as a separate State. New York opposed this, and the application was refused. Accordingly Vermont remained for some years nominally under the jurisdiction of New York. Its leading men even made overtures to the British government, wishing to be joined to Canada. Nothing however came of this, and after the Constitution was adopted Vermont applied to be admitted into the Union. The request was granted; New York accepted thirty thousand dollars as compensation, and in 1791 Vermont became one of the United States. The next State admitted was Kentucky. This was a district to the west of Virginia, which originally formed a part of that

State and gradually detached itself from it. Till about 1770 the country was only occupied by a few hunters and scattered settlers; but in 1782 the population had so increased that the distance from the capital of Virginia



was felt to be an inconvenience. To meet this, a Law Court was established in the district, equal in power to that at Richmond. In 1785 a convention was held which petitioned the legislature of Virginia to make the district into a separate State. This was done, and in 1792 the State of Kentucky was admitted to the Union. In 1785 the inhabitants of the north-west

frontier of North Carolina wished to separate, and proposed to become a State under the name of Franklin. The matter, however, could not be settled at the time. In 1789 the legislature of North Carolina handed over the district in question to the United States. It was formed into a Territory, and seven years later it was admitted into the Union as the State of Tennessee. The treaty of peace with Great Britain gave to the United States a vast district between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies. This region was formed into a Territory in 1787, out of which five States have been formed since. In 1802 Ohio was admitted as a State.



## CHAPTER XXI.

THE WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

HE election of Jefferson marked the complete triumph of the Republicans. It was followed, as such political victories in America have been ever since, by wholesale changes in all the government offices. Jefferson turned out numbers of public servants, and replaced them with his own supporters. He pleaded in defence of this, that he could not trust the followers of his political opponents, Adams and Hamilton. Later Presidents, however, have, without any such excuse, followed his example. They have created vacancies simply to

reward their own followers, and this has been shamelessly defended, on the plea that the conquerors are entitled to the spoils. In his opening address Jefferson laid down clearly the general principles of his party. He declared his intention of "supporting the State governments in all their rights as the most competent administration for our domestic concerns, and the surest bulwark against anti-republican tendencies." At the same time he spoke of "the preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigor, as the sheet-anchor of our peace at home and safety abroad." He also spoke strongly of the folly and danger of any attempt at separation, thereby differing widely from the champions of State-rights in later times.

Soon after Jefferson took office, Napoleon, then First Consul, extorted Louisiana from the Spanish government. This naturally alarmed the Americans. An active, ambitious, warlike nation, like France, was a far more dangerous neighbor than a worn-out power such as Spain. It was fortunate for America that the Republicans then in power had always striven to stand

well with France. Jefferson, knowing that the French government wanted money, at once entered into negotiations for the purchase of the territory in question. After some discussion, the whole of Louisiana was bought by the Americans for fifteen million dollars. This arrangement was carried out by the President and his cabinet, without the previous consent of Congress. In this exercise of arbitrary power Jefferson and his party were guilty of a breach of those principles which they had always upheld. The nation, however, was too well pleased with the result to question the nature of the proceeding. The Spanish government at first objected to the arrangement, and urged that it had given up Louisiana on the understanding that France should not part with it; but France and America were both ready to enforce the arrangement by arms, and Spain gave way. In 1804 the southern part of the newly-acquired land was formed into a Territory, and in 1812 it was admitted as the State of Louisiana.

In 1801 the United States were engaged in their first foreign war. When the Federals came into power under Adams, the American navy was far too weak to protect the rapidly growing commerce of the country. In spite of the opposition of the Republicans, who were hostile to everything which strengthened the hands of government, much was done during Adams's presidency to put the navy on a better footing. The result of this was soon seen in the dealings of the American government with the petty states on the coast of Barbary, namely, Tripoli, Algiers, Tunis, and Morocco. Pirates from these states, sanctioned, if not sent out, by their rulers, harassed the commerce of civilized nations. The rapidly growing trade of America was especially exposed to these attacks, and accordingly the American government, like some of the European governments, secured its citizens against the pirates by a yearly payment to the rulers of the Barbary States. In 1800, the Dey of Algiers, presuming on the weakness of the Americans, ordered the captain of the ship which brought the yearly tribute to take an ambassador for him to Constantinople. As the ship lay under the guns of the fort, the captain dared not endanger her by refusing. In 1801 the Pasha of Tripoli, thinking that his State had been treated with less respect than Algiers, threatened to declare war on America. Next year the Americans sent a fleet of four ships to pacify the various Barbary States, or if, as seemed likely, war had been already declared, to attack them. American commander found on his arrival that the Pasha of Tripoli had declared war. During the year the Americans took several ships belonging to Tripoli, but struck no serious blow. Next year a fleet of six ships was sent out. It attacked Tripoli without any decisive result. In 1805, the fleet blockaded Tripoli, and was helped by a land force under the command of Hamet Caramalli. He was the elder brother of the reigning Pasha, but had been deposed, and had fled to Egypt. With a mixed force, officered in

part by Americans, he marched on Derne, a town in the State of Tripoliand took it. This was the first time that the American flag was hoisted over any place in the Old World. Thus, threatened both by land and sea. the Pasha was glad to make peace. The terms granted him were liberalin the opinion of many of the Americans, too liberal. No more tribute was to be paid, but the Pasha was to receive sixty thousand dollars as ransom for American prisoners. The claims of Hamet Caramalli, having served their turn, were forgotten. Immediately afterwards the Dev of Tunis threatened the American fleet with war, unless they restored a vessel which they had seized on its way into Tripoli. The American commander not only refused to do this, but told the Dey that no tribute would be paid in future. The Dev at first blustered, but when the American fleet appeared before Tunis, he gave way entirely. These successes put an end, as far as Americawas concerned, to the disgraceful system of paying blackmail to the Mediterranean pirates. During the war great courage was shown in many cases by American officers and seamen, and the practice which they gained bore fruit in the ensuing war with Great Britain.

We have seen how, through the intrigues of a section of the Federal party, Colonel Burr pressed Jefferson closely for the Presidency. In the spring of 1804 Burr stood unsuccessfully for the governorship of New York. During the contest Hamilton used severe, though just language, about Burn Burr challenged him; they fought, and Hamilton was killed. Other American statesmen have done greater service to their country; none probably ever understood the nature of its Constitution so well as Hamilton, or foresaw so clearly the special dangers which lay before it. Burr was soon engaged in fresh misdeeds. He was detected in a plot, the object of which has never been clearly discovered. He was found to be transporting troops and supplies to the southern valley of the Ohio. It seems doubtful whether hisobject was to raise an insurrection in the West, or to make an independent and unauthorized attack on Mexico with the help of disaffected inhabitants. of that country. He was tried on the first of these charges and acquitted. The second was then allowed to drop, as the government probably felt that his schemes were completely discredited and his power of mischief destroyed. He fled to Europe, and was no more heard of in public life.

The election of Jefferson and the ascendency of the Republicans naturally drew the United States towards friendship with France and enmity to Great-Britain. The great European war, by crippling the resources both of England and France, threw the carrying trade into the hands of America, and rapidly increased the American merchant navy. A demand for sailors-sprang up, and to supply this, American merchant captains readily received deserters from the British navy. British commanders sought to recover these men, and thus a question arose as to the right of search—the right,

that is to say, of British officers to search neutral vessels for deserters. The bitter feeling which thus sprang up was increased by the fact that British commanders were often unscrupulous in forcibly impressing American citi-To such a length was this carried that it was believed that, before the end of the great European war, several thousand American-born citizens had been pressed into the British navy. In 1807 a question of this kind led to a conflict between two vessels, the British Leopard and the American Chesapeake. The commander of the Leopard demanded to search the Chesapeake. The American captain refused. Thereupon the Leopard attacked. killing five men and wounding sixteen. The British captain carried off four men who were alleged to be deserters. Three of these were proved to be American citizens wrongfully claimed by the British. The British government made full amends, but the ill-feeling created did not pass away. growing commercial greatness of the United States soon brought them into conflict, both with Great Britain and France. Each of these nations tried to injure the other by forbidding neutral vessels to enter the ports of its The American government met this by laying on an embargo, forbidding all vessels to leave the American ports. This measure naturally annoyed the New England merchants, and drove them even more than before into the ranks of the Federal party. At the same time the government began to make active preparations for war, and especially to strengthen the navy. In 1807, Madison succeeded Jefferson as President. He had taken a leading part in forming the Constitution, and in pressing it upon the nation. At first he was a moderate Federal, but he had gradually drifted round, and was now Jefferson's Secretary of State. In 1810 France and Great Britain each professed itself ready to repeal its decrees, if the other would do so first. But neither would take the first step. So far, the quarrel had been as much with France as with Great Britain, but circumstances arose which turned the scale against the latter. Another fight between two ships sprang up out of a claim to search, put forward by the British. Another grievance was the complaint that English agents were stirring up disaffection in the border settlements and intriguing with the Indians there. Moreover, in 1811 Napoleon withdrew his decree against commerce between England and America. No similar concession was made by the British government. On the 18th of June, 1812, the American government, on the ground of the various injuries received from Great Britain, declared war. Five days afterward, before that declaration reached England, the British government withdrew its orders against commercial intercourse with France. Attempts were then made to restore peace. Each government, however, stood firm on the one point of the right of search. In going to war on such trivial grounds, there can be no doubt that the Americans were influenced by their old sympathy and alliance with France, then engaged in her great struggle against the free nations of Europe.

The Americans began the war with an attack on Canada. General Hulf-led the invading force, composed of two thousand militia and five hundred regulars. The British were aided by an Indian force under Tecumseh. He was a Shawnee chief, a man of great ability and energy. He had gained great influence over the Indians, and had made vigorous, and partially successful, efforts to restrain the Americans from encroaching on his countrymen, to wean the Indians from their habits of drunkenness, and to withhold them from selling their lands. Tecumseh had a brother called the "Prophet," a man fully as ambitious as himself, but far less wise. Under his leadership the Shawnees had in 1811 attacked the settlers in Ohio and been defeated by General Harrison at a place called Tippecanoe, after a long and fierce engagement. But as this attempt had been made in Tecumseh's absence and against his wishes, the failure had in no way



PICKETS ON DUTY.

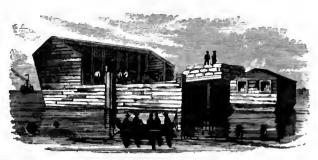
weakened his influence. Hisalliance now was of much service to the British. Aided. by him, Brock, the British commander in Canada, drove: back the invading force intothe town of Detroit, and there surrounded and captured them. A smaller American force soon afterwards made another attack on the Canadian frontier. This attempt also failed, and nearly the whole of the invaders were captured, but the British lost their commander, Brock. Next year the attack on Canada was renewed, but-

with no great success. Several detached attacks were made, but one only effected its object. A force of two thousand men under General Dearborn destroyed the British town of York (now called Toronto). In all the other expeditions the Americans were defeated, in some cases with great loss. Finally, they concentrated their forces, numbering four thousand, for an attack on Montreal. Some trifling engagements followed, in which the British had the best of it, but nothing decisive was done. The British, however, were unsuccessful in their one attempt to push the war into the United States. A British force of five hundred regulars and seven hundred Indians, well provided with artillery, under General Proctor, attacked Fort Stephenson on the north-west frontier. This place was held by Colonel Croghan with one hundred and thirty-three men. He refused to surrender,

and beat off the assailants, killing one hundred and fifty of them, and losing, it is said, only one of his own men. Later in the year the Americans were more successful. In September Commodore Perry, with nine vessels, defeated a British squadron of like size on Lake Erie. In the same year, General Proctor was defeated on the River Thames in Canada after an engagement, in which Tecumseh fell. As a set-off against these defeats, the British took Fort Niagara, with large stores, and Buffalo, then a village on the American frontier.

At sea the Americans were more successful than by land. Their fleet at the outset of the war was weak in numbers, containing only seven frigates and eight smaller vessels. But their officers were for the most part brave and skilful seamen, and the flourishing American merchant service gave the country the means of manning its regular navy quickly and well. The British navy, on the other hand, had become careless through continued success, and the press-gang system rendered the service unpopular and the men disaffected. In the first year of the war the Americans were victorious in four successive engagements between single ships. But in the spring of 1813 a British fleet of twenty sail entered the Chesapeake Bay. The Americans could not encounter so large a force, and it sailed along the coast, doing much damage. The most remarkable naval event of this year, and indeed of the whole war, was the fight between the Chesapeake and the Shannon. The Chesapeake was the same vessel that had been attacked by the Leopard six years before. She was a ship of thirty-eight guns, under the command of Captain Lawrence, and was fitted with every war-

like appliance that the skill of the day could suggest. Her crew, however, had been aggrieved by some prize-money being withheld from them, and some of her officers were inexperienced. The Shannon was also a thirty-eight gun ship, commanded by Captain Broke. She had taken twenty-five prizes, every one of which



A FLOATING BATTERY.

Broke had destroyed, rather than weaken his crew by drawing out men to take charge of them. Her inferiority to the *Chesapeake* in fittings and resources was more than made up for by the courage of her captain and the high training and seamanship of her crew. During the spring Broke lay off Boston harbor, waiting for an American vessel to come out. None came, and his supplies began to run short. At length he sent a written challenge to any of the American fleet, whereupon the *Chesapeake* bore

down upon him and opened fire. After ten minutes the Shannon was laid alongside. The British boarded, and in five minutes, after a fight in which Lawrence fell, the Americans struck their flag. The American loss was forty-seven killed and ninety-nine wounded. On the British side twenty-four were killed, and Broke with fifty-eight others wounded. After this affair, remarkable rather as a brilliant duel than for any real importance in its results, nothing noteworthy was done by sea on either side.

The year 1813 saw the Americans engaged with a fresh foe. The Creek Indians, led on by the influence and example of Tecumseh, made war on the south-western states. This was of interest and importance, not only for its



own sake, but because it brought into public view one of the most remarkable men in American history. Andrew Jackson. leader of the Indians was one Weathersford, a halfbreed, a man second only to Tecumseh in ability and influence. The first place attacked was Fort Mims, an outpost on the borders of Alabama. So little did the commander of this place expect an attack that, when a negro brought news of the Indian preparations, he was flogged for raising a false alarm. A few hours afterward the fort was attacked, and after a fierce

fight was taken. Some of the garrison escaped, but out of five hundred and fifty occupants of the fort four hundred, including all the women and children, perished. Four hundred of the Indians also fell. Weathersford did his best to restrain the ferocity of his countrymen, but to no purpose. The south-western States at once raised forces for an Indian war. That from Tennessee was the first in the field. It was commanded by Andrew Jackson, whose ancestors had emigrated from the North of Ireland. He was now forty-six years old; he was a lawyer by profession, and had been appointed judge of the Supreme Court in his own State. He had also served against the Indians, and was now appointed major-general of the Tennessee army. He was a man of great decision and energy, and considerable ability, but

wild in his habits and liable to fearful outbursts of passion, which had frequently engaged him in disreputable quarrels. He was still suffering from wounds received in one of those affairs when he was called on to take the field against the Creeks. Nevertheless, he rose from his sick-bed and went forth at the head of two thousand five hundred men. A detachment of his force attacked and took a stronghold of the Indians called Tallushatches, and soon after Jackson himself defeated the enemy in a pitched battle at Talladega. After this a succession of mishaps seemed at one time to threaten the army with destruction. A party of Indians who had come to make their submission and to ask for terms, were by mistake attacked and ent off. This made the Indians feel that there was no resource but to fight it out to the last, and turned some who might have been friendly, or at least neutral, into enemies. Moreover it was midwinter, and the troops suffered both from the severity of the weather and from lack of provisions. Jackson, too, was beset by the same difficulty as the commanders in the revolutionary war. His men were only enlisted for short periods, and they claimed their discharge just

when their services were most needed. Once they openly mutinied, but they were brought back by Jackson's prompt dealing and resolute bearing. At last they refused to advance, as it seemed, to certain starvation, and even Jackson had to yield. Supplies, however, came just when they were most wanted, and the troops were able to advance. In two skirmishes with



UNFIT FOR DUTY.

parties sent out by Jackson the Indians had the best of it, but for more than two months nothing decisive was done. In March, Jackson advanced with his whole force, numbering about one thousand. The Creeks made their stand at a bend of the river Tallapoosa. During the delays caused by the disturbances in the American army the Indians had ensconced themselves in a strong log-fort. Their number of fighting men was about nine hundred. After a fierce fight the Indians were routed with great loss. This, called the battle of Tallapoosa, is generally looked upon as the blow which destroyed the last remnant of Indian power. In the meantime Governor Clayborne of Alabama had attacked and defeated an Indian force under Weathersford. Weathersford himself saved his life by leaping his horse into the river off a bluff fifteen feet high. By these two defeats the power of the Creeks was utterly broken. Some fled to Florida; the bulk of the nation sued for, and obtained peace, surrendering more than half their territory to the American government. This war was important in two ways; firstly, as setting free the Southern States, and thereby enabling them to employ all their forces against the British invasion; secondly, as being the first step in the career of Andrew Jackson, a man who probably had more influence on his country for good and evil than any President between Jefferson and Lincoln.

The beginning of the campaign of 1814 was disastrous to the Americans, and not altogether creditable to the British. The settlement of peace in Europe enabled Great Britain to turn all her forces against America. But, instead of concentrating all its power in one great attack, the British government aimed a succession of blows at different points. In August a force of four thousand men under General Ross sailed into Chesapeake Bay. The commander of the American fleet, instead of opposing their landing, burnt his ships and joined the land force. The British thereupon decided to march on Washington. The force opposed to them consisted of one thousand regulars and five thousand militia. Instead of contenting themselves with harassing the British, for which they were better fitted, they drew up ready for a



VIEW OF FORT HENRY

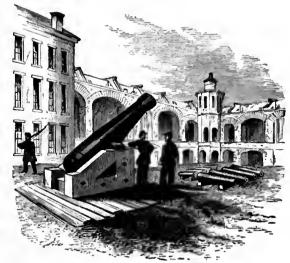
pitched battle at Bladensburg, a point covering Washington. The British drove them back, without much loss on either side. The American commander, however, decided that his force was too much weakened by the flight of the militia to hold Washington, and accordingly he evacuated the city. The British marched in and destroyed the government property, including the Capitol, the President's house, and the national records; a barbarous violation of the usages of war among civilized nations. Their next proceeding was to march on Baltimore. They were supported by a squadron of fifty sail under Admiral Cochrane, which sailed up the Patapsco river. The town was garrisoned with one thousand five hundred men, nearly all militia. Its chief defence was an outwork called Fort Henry, on the Patapsco. The land force met with little resistance in its advance, although it lost its commander, Ross, in a skirmish. The fleet bombarded Fort Henry, but was unable either to silence the enemy's guns or to force

its way past. As the land force did not appear strong enough to make the attack unsupported, the attempt was abandoned. In the meantime the British had sustained a severe loss on the coast. Sir Peter Parker, a naval officer of much note, who was in command of a frigate in the Chesapeake Bay, had landed with a small force, and had been killed by an outlying party of Americans.

On the northern frontier the war had been carried on actively on both sides, but without any decisive result. In May the British took Oswego, an important place on the American side of Lake Ontario. In June the Americans renewed their attempt to invade Canada. They crossed near Niagara with more than three thousand men, captured Fort Erie, and defeated the advance. guard of the British at Chippeway. On the 25th of July they encountered the whole British force at Lundy's Lane, near Niagara. A fierce engagement followed, with heavy and nearly equal losses on each side, but with no decisive result. The Americans kept Fort Erie for a while, but finally judging that they could not hold the place, they destroyed it, and returned to their own territory. In September Sir George Prevost, the governor of Canada, made an attempt, somewhat like Burgoyne's, to invade the United States by way of Lake Champlain. He was supported by a fleet of seventeen sail. But a small American fleet under Commodore McDonough engaged the British fleet and utterly defeated it at Plattsburgh, near the

northern end of the lake. Thereupon Prevost abandoned his attempted invasion.

By far the most important events of this war were those in the South. In the course of the summer of 1814 it became known that the British were meditating an attack on the Southern States, probably at the mouth of the Mississippi. The defence was entrusted to Jackson, fresh from his victory over the Creeks. He found that the British had established themselves at Pensacola, in the Spanish territory of Florida. Jackson himself took up his posi-



A HEAVY GUN.

tion at Mobile, on the coast of Alabama. The chief defence of Mobile was Fort Bowyer, on a point commanding Mobile Bay. On the 15th of September the fort was attacked by the British both by sea and land, but was gallantly and successfully defended by Major Lawrence. Jackson sent a ship

to its relief, but the captain, hearing a terrific explosion, came back and told Jackson that the fort had fallen. The explosion in reality was caused by the blowing up of a British ship which had been set on fire by the guns of the fort. After this success, Jackson marched upon Pensacola and seized it, considering that the Spaniards, by harboring the British, had forfeited their rights as neutral. The British now proceeded to attack New Orleans. Some doubts seem to have been felt on each side how far the French-born Louisianians would be true to the American Union, of which they had lately become citizens. There seems to have been no ground for these suspicions, and the Louisianians were throughout loyal to their new government. There was also the fear of a rising among the slaves. Moreover, the American supply of arms was miserably insufficient; but the strong will and courage of Jackson overcame or lightened every difficulty. On the 24th of November the British fleet of fifty sail anchored off the mouth of the Mississippi. Two plans of attack were open to the British: to ascend the river and attack New Orleans by water, or to land the troops and march on the city.

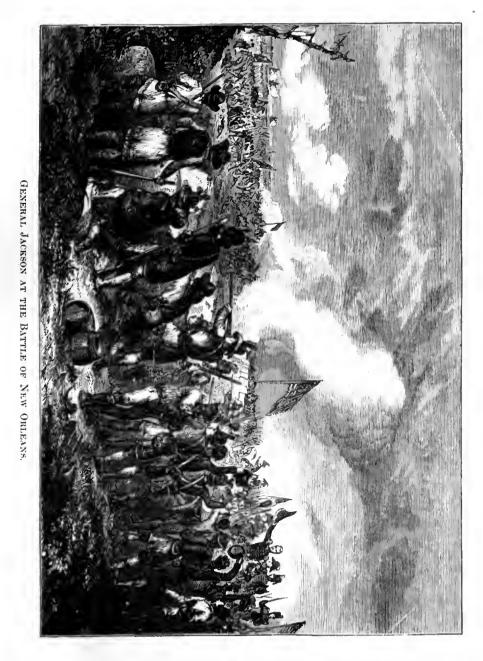
To do the former it would have been necessary to destroy the forts which guarded the river, or at least to silence their guns. This was considered too difficult, and the British commanders decided to attack by land. Accordingly, on the 21st of December the British troops disembarked. They were opposed by a fleet of small vessels, but the British gunboats beat these off, and the



FLAT-BOATS USED FOR DISEMBARKING TROOPS.

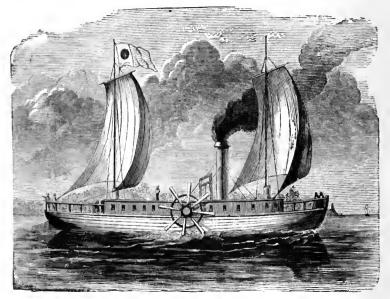
troops made good their landing. They were under the command of General Pakenham, a brother-in-law of the Duke of Wellington. He had shown himself a brave soldier in the Peninsula, but had done nothing to prove his fitness for command where much skill and judgment were needed. He himself, with a considerable body of troops, did not arrive till some days after the landing of the first detachment. Till his coming, the British troops, numbering about three thousand, were commanded by General Keane. At first the Americans were ignorant of the exact position of the enemy, but on the 23d they learned that the British army was within nine miles of the city. The news was brought by a young planter, whose house had been seized by the British troops. All the rest of the household had been captured, and but for his escape the city might have been surprised. Jackson then marched out, and an engagement followed. After a whole night's fighting, during which the British were much harassed by the fire of two vessels in the river, the Americans retired. Kenne, it has been thought,

ought then to have marched straight on the city. Few men, however, would have ventured on such a step in the absence of their superior officer. Moreover, Pakenham was expected to bring up large reinforcements, and Keane



could not know that fresh troops were daily pouring into New Orleans and that Jackson's hopes were rising with every hour of delay. After this, Jackson stationed himself outside the city and threw up earthworks for its

defence. Every man and horse that could be pressed into the service was employed. On the 25th Pakenham arrived, and three days later an unsuccessful attack was made on the American works. Here, as before, the two American ships in the river greatly annoyed the British troops, till one was sunk and the other driven off by the enemy's guns. On the 8th of January the British made their general attack. They numbered seven thousand three hundred, the Americans twelve thousand. Pakenham sent a detachment across the river to seize the forts on that side, which would otherwise have annoyed his main body by a cross-fire. This attempt was completely successful, but the main body was defeated with terrific loss, and Pakenham himself fell. Jackson did not attempt to follow up his victory, and, after a few skirmishes between the outposts, the British embarked and sailed off.



FULTON'S FIRST STEAMBOAT.

Though the war was in reality over and peace signed when this battle was fought, yet the victory was of great importance to the Americans. It saved New Orleans, a rich and populous city, from the horrors of a sack. Coming also immediately after the Indian war, and contrasted with the American defeat at Washington, it begot an enthusiastic admiration for Jackson which laid the foundation of his great political influence.

While this earnage was going on before New Orleans, the two nations were no longer at war. Commissioners from Great Britain and the United States had met at Ghent in July to discuss the terms of peace. These were easily arranged. Great Britain at first insisted that her right of impressing sailors on the high seas should be acknowledged by the Americans; America insisted that it should be formally renounced. Each at length gave way on

this point, and the matter was left as before. The British gave up their conquests on the Canadian frontier, so that the boundaries remained as they had been before the war. The Americans refused to admit the Indians who were allied with the British to a share in the treaty, but at length promised not to molest them. On the 24th of December peace was signed; the terms of it are the best proof of the trivial grounds on which war was declared.

Two mechanical inventions, made in America about this time, deserve special notice from the important effects which they at once produced. One was the cotton-gin, invented in 1793 by Eli Whitney of Massachusetts. This was a machine for separating the fibre of the cotton, the part used in manufacture, from the seeds. Hitherto this had been done by hand. Machinery had already been contrived in England for the making of cotton goods, but its full use was hindered by the cost of the raw material. Before Whitney's invention not much cotton was exported from the United States. In 1794 a million and a half pounds were exported, and in the next year five and a quarter millions. The immediate effect of this in America was to call into life a new form of industry, cotton-planting. The warm swampy lands of the Southern States rose enormously in value, and at the same time the demand for slave labor was greatly increased. Soon after this, another invention was brought in, more wonderful than the cotton-gin, and far more remarkable in its effects on the whole world, though not perhaps on America. This was the steamboat, which was introduced into America by Robert Fulton of Pennsylvania. The idea of the steamboat had been thought of by others, but Fulton was the first who successfully carried it into practice. His first steamboat was launched on the Hudson in 1807. The great immediate effect of this was to increase immensely the importance of the two main rivers of the United States, the Hudson and the Mississippi. The Mississippi became more than ever the great line of communication, binding together the Southern and Western States. Some twenty years earlier, Franklin had put forth emphatically the value of the Mississippi to the United States, declaring that to ask them to part with it was like asking a man to sell his front door. The invention of the steamboat gave double force to Franklin's words.



## CHAPTER XXII.

SOUTH CAROLINA AND NULLIFICATION.

BOUT this time the differences between the North and South began to make themselves felt. But as those differences and the conflicts that rose out of them, at least so far as they concerned slavery, form one connected chain of events ending in the War of Secession, it will be better to consider them separately, and to pass them over for the present, except when they are inseparably mixed up with the events of the day. In 1817 Madison was succeeded as President by another Republican, Monroe. He was a man of no

special power, who had served creditably in various public offices. He is best known by his assertion of what was called the Monroe

what was called the Monroe doctrine of "America for the Americans." A rumor was afloat that the European powers intended to interfere to restore the authority of Spain in her revolted colonies in South America. Thereupon Monroe declared that he should consider any attempt on the part of European powers "to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety."

In 1825, at the end of Monroe's second term of office, Adams, the son of the great Federal statesman, became President. He was a highly-educated



James monroe

and thoughtful man, too much so indeed to be a popular statesman. He strengthened the navy, and supported improvements, roads, canals, and the like, which the Republicans wished to leave to the various States. But the point on which the two parties were most strongly opposed was the question of import duties. Originally the North was for Free Trade and the

South for Protection. The former took this line from the belief that the shipping and carrying business would gain by free trade; the latter upheld protection because they were the chief producers and so wished to keep out foreign rivals. Accordingly, in 1816, Calhoun of South Carolina brought in and carried a bill imposing protective duties. But before long the Northerners found that they were the gainers by this. Their manufactures rapidly grew, and thus it became their interest to keep out foreign goods. At the same time the heavy import duties prevented the South from buying imported articles, and forced them to depend for such on the North. Thus, when the question of duties was brought forward in 1828, the two parties had changed sides. The South, under Calhoun, were fighting for Free Trade; the North, led by Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, for Protection.

In 1826 the 4th of July was kept with great national rejoicings. It

was marked by one of the most noticeable events in history, the death on that day of Jefferson and Adams, the two men who had drawn up the Declaration of Independence. Though for a while estranged, they had been reconciled and had for many years corresponded as friends. Adams's last words were "Thomas Jefferson vet survives." In reality, when those words were spoken. Jefferson had been dead a few hours. The death of those old men seemed a sort of omen for the time 'to come. No President of the United States has been chosen since the election of John Quincy Adams. as were his father and Jefferson, as being the most cultivated and enlightened statesman of the day. He



3 2. Aclams

and all that went before him were men raised by training and social position above the ranks of the people; all that have come since have been taken from the common run of citizens.

In his second candidature Quincy Adams was opposed by General Jackson. The main issue between the two parties was the commercial one. The one, consisting mainly of Northern merchants, were for high protective duties; the other, whose strength lay among the Southern planters, for free trade. Jackson's chief claim to office was the popularity gained by his services in war. Over and above this, he showed a strength of will and a power of commanding men which, as we shall see, were perhaps more

needful for a President just at this time than knowledge and culture. Hitherto, however, his force of character had shown itself chiefly in high-handed abuses of authority, as commander. After his defence of New Orleans, he had conducted a war against the Seminole Indians in the South. There he had set at nought the orders of his own government; he had seized Spanish towns without due authority, and had executed two British prisoners on the ground that they were intriguing with the Indians, but on evidence far too weak to justify such a measure. In 1824 he had been brought forward as candidate for the Presidency, and had been beaten by Adams. In 1828 they were again rival candidates, and this time Jackson was elected.

Like Jefferson, Jackson signalized his entry to office by a wholesale discharge of government officials. True to the principles of his party, he



THE PALMETTO, EMBLEM OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

reversed as far as possible Adams's measures for strengthening the navy and for granting the aid of the government to internal improvements. His term of office was marked by two great The most important of these was against the extreme members of his own, the Democratic or States Rights party. In 1832 the import duties were lowered, but not enough to satisfy the South. South Carolina had always been the most active and independent of the Southern States. There, more than elsewhere, the planters regarded themselves as a separate and superior class, and looked down upon the traders of the North. In Calhoun, South Carolina found a leader well suited to her. He had been elected Vice-President under Jackson. His family came from Ireland, but had been for many years

settled in America. He may be looked on as a type of all the best, and of many of the most dangerous, characteristics of the Southern planters. As a speaker, he was clear and forcible, though unpolished. But his influence lay not in his oratory, but in the intense earnestness of his convictions, his devotion to his own State, and the loftiness and purity of his private character. He believed firmly in slavery as a system of life, a form of industry, and above all as insuring the political ascendency of the South. He held this belief like a religious creed, to which he clung with the unbounded devotion of a fanatic. Under his leadership, South Carolina called a Convention and refused to accept the tariff. This line of action was called Nullification, and was based on the doctrine that any State had a right in extreme cases to refuse to be bound by the enactments of the

central government. This was not the first case in which a State had shown such a tendency to disobedience. During the war of 1812, a Convention of Northern citizens, who were strongly opposed to the war and to the other measures of the government, had met at Hartford, in Connecticut, and had, it is said, discussed the possibility of separation. But the affairs of the Hartford Convention were conducted with great secrecy, and seem to have excited little alarm. It was not so with the hot-blooded planters of South Carolina. They were known to be making preparations for resistance, and it seemed for a while that civil war was at hand. Jackson's courage and promptitude, and the power which he had shown of striking swiftly and effectually with hastily-collected and ill-organized forces, now stood the Union in good stead. Southerner and Democrat though he was. he was as passionately attached to the cause of the Union as Calhoun was to that of his own State. Jackson publicly announced that the Union must be preserved at all hazards, and made preparations as for war. He was supported, not only by his own party, but by the Federals. Webster made in Congress one of his greatest speeches, in which he clearly pointed out that there was no alternative for any State between obedience and rebellion. and that to allow each State to decide how far it need obey the National Government was practically to destroy that government. A conflict was prevented by a compromise. This was effected in a bill brought forward by Clay of Kentucky, providing that the import duties should be gradually reduced. This was finally carried. The supporters of it thought that any measure ought to be adopted which would remove the danger of civil war, and at the same time preserve the authority of the Constitution. Many of them too must have seen that the demands of South Carolina were in themselves reasonable, whatever might be said of the way in which they were urged. Others felt that, by yielding anything to threats, they would weaken the authority of the Constitution, and encourage like attempts in the future.

Jackson's other great struggle was against his natural opponents, the Federals, and on behalf of Democratic principles. In 1832 the National Bank applied for a renewal of its charter from government. This was opposed in Congress. The Federals, headed by Webster, supported it, and it was carried: but the President refused his approval. The bank retaliated by using its vast influence to prevent Jackson's re-election, but failed. Jackson then withdrew all the public moneys in it and transferred them to banks in the various States. The opposition to the bank was based, partly on the old Democratic hostility to central institutions, partly on alleged mismanagement and corruption. These charges seem to have had some foundation, though they were probably exaggerated. The withdrawal of the public money and the refusal of a charter did not at once destroy

the bank, but they deprived it of its character as a public institution and led to its downfall.

About this time a new political party sprang up, calling themselves at first National Republicans and afterwards Whigs. As the latter name showed, they supported the Constitution as the safeguard of national liberty. The leaders of this party were Henry Clay and Daniel Webster. The former was the son of a Kentucky clergyman, the latter of a New England farmer. Both were sprung from the middle class and rose into public life by their success as lawyers. Both were men of liberal mind and wide culture, and remarkable for sobriety of judgment. In eloquence, Webster has probably never been equalled by any of his countrymen, unless, perhaps, by Patrick Henry. Neither Clay nor Webster ever attained the Presidency, partly because the allegiance of the party was in a measure divided between them. Moreover, during their period of public life it was found necessary to select as candidates for the Presidency, not men of brilliant ability, but moderate and safe men, against whom no special objection could be urged



meunBuren

by any one. Though Webster and the Whigs supported Jackson on the question of Nullification, yet on the Bauk Charter and other important mattersthey were opposed to him. In 1829 Van Buren, the Secretary of State, in a paper of instructions to the American. minister in England, blamed the policy of Adams's government, and instructed the minister to disavow their proceedings in his dealings with the British cabinet. Webster held that this introduction of party politics into diplomacy would be injurious to the relations of America with other countries. The Senate supported this view, and when, in 1832, Jackson nominated Van Buren as minister to England, they took the serious step of refusing to sanction the appointment.

Jackson was succeeded by Van Buren, a Northern Democrat. He was aman of education, and his writings on American politics show that he understood the Constitution of his country far better than the generality of his party, better perhaps than any statesman of his day except Clay and Webster. But he was either wanting in energy and force of will, or unfortunate in having few opportunities of showing such qualities. He seems

to have shrunk from the exercise of power, but, when forced to use it, to have done so with wisdom and dignity. During his term of office the government was involved in considerable trouble with the Indians. more than ten years measures had been going on for moving them westward. Hitherto the Indians had been merely savage enemies on the outskirts of the States; but now things took a new turn. They began to form settlements, which might fairly be called civilized, in territory which the United States claimed. Those settlements refused to acknowledge the authority of the United States, and so were likely to be a source of much trouble. The National Government therefore adopted the policy of buying up the lands and transferring the Indians to territories in the West. Such bargains must always be one-sided affairs, with craft on the one hand and ignorance on the other, and quarrels soon broke out, leading to a number of detached The most troublesome of these was with Jackson's old foes, the Seminoles, who held out in Florida under a brave chief named Osceola, They made themselves specially obnoxious to the Southern planters by receiving runaway slaves. At length Osceola was treacherously captured by his opponent, General Jessop, and resistance gradually died out. These wars cannot be regarded as of much importance. When once the Indians and the white settlers began to be mixed up together, and their territories to overlap and interlace, the fate of the Indians was sealed. Their only chance was to present an unbroken frontier of wild country tenanted only by savages. As soon as the traders could come among them, corrupting and dividing them, all possibility of united and effective resistance was at an end.

In 1841 General Harrison, the Whig candidate, who had been defeated by Van Buren in 1837, was elected President. His claim to office rested entirely on his military services. His fitness for his position was never tested, as, after holding office for a month, he died. According to the provision of the Constitution he was succeeded by the Vice-President, John Tyler. The most important event of his Presidency was the settlement of certain threatening differences between America and Great Britain. For a long while there had been an unsettled question between the two countries as to the boundary of Nova Scotia. There were also more serious subjects of dispute. In 1837 an insurrection broke out in Canada. The insurgents were aided by a party of Americans. To check the latter some of the loval Canadians crossed over to the American bank of the St. Lawrence, and destroyed the Caroline, a vessel belonging to the friends of the insurgents. In the affray which followed, one American was killed. For this, Alexander Macleod, a British subject, was arrested. Fortunately he was acquitted. In 1841 an American vessel, the Creole, was sailing from Richmond to New Orleans with a cargo of slaves. The slaves rose, seized the vessel, and took

her into the British port of New Providence in the West Indies. The authorities there assisted the slaves to escape. Thus each nation was furnished with a grievance against the other, and such ill-feeling resulted that serious fears of war were entertained.

Fortunately Webster, who was Tyler's Secretary of State, was liked and respected by British statesmen. In 1842 Lord Ashburton was sent out from England to negotiate a treaty. The main point to be settled was the



Don't Webston

Northern States. The difficulty occurred which specially besets Federal governments in their dealings with foreign nations, in the matter of territory. The question affected, not merely the whole American Union, but more especially the States of Maine and Massachusetts, to which the territory in dispute would belong. These States might reasonably suspect that their special interest would be sacrificed to those of the At length the matter was settled by a compromise. Great Britain gave up the larger and more valuable share of the disputed territory, and the United States government paid a sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars to the States of Maine and Massachusetts to make up

boundary between Canada and the

the loss of the rest. Two other points of importance were settled by this treaty. One was the suppression of the slave-trade by the two governments. This it will be better to deal with when we come to the whole question of slavery. The other was the mutual surrender of criminals. This was beset by some difficulty. The United States demanded that this arrangement should include fugitive slaves, a point on which the British government was resolved not to yield, or even to admit anything which could be afterwards twisted into a pretext for such dealings. At length Lord Ashburton was satisfied on this point, and the treaty was signed in the summer of 1842. Both in England and America fault was found with the provisions of the treaty as going too much to the other side. Webster and the other defenders of the treaty reasonably enough appealed to this as a proof of its fairness.

During the period through which we have passed several new States

had been added to the Union. Indiana and Michigan were formed out of the unappropriated western territory; and Missouri and Arkansas out of the remainder of the French province of Louisiana. The Territory of Florida had been formed out of the land ceded by Spain. Besides this, Territories had been formed in the west out of the lands gained from the Indians. In the North, too, a fresh State had come into existence. In 1820, with the consent of Massachusetts, Maine was formed into an independent State.



## CHAPTER XXIII.

GROWING OPPOSITION BETWEEN THE NORTH AND SOUTH.

must now go back somewhat to trace from its beginning the contest between the Northern and Southern States. This struggle turned on two points, Free Trade and Slavery. So far as Free Trade was concerned, we have already seen how matters stood. We have now to deal with that which proved in the long run a far more serious difficulty, Slavery. When the Constitution was drawn up, there seemed every prospect of slavery being gradually and peaceably extinguished. Some of the leading statesmen, notably Wash-

ington and Jefferson, themselves Virginia slaveholders, looked forward to abolition. It was provided by the Constitution that the importation of slaves should not be interfered with till 1808, and in that year it was made illegal. The first origin of the distinct struggle for and against slavery was the admission of new States to the Union. The five old Southern States—Maryland, Virginia, the two Carolinas, and Georgia—soon found themselves

united in opposition to the North. Their habits and ideas, and, above all, their commercial interests, were different from those of the Northerners. Thus it was clearly to the interest of the South that the new States should also be Slave States, and so be inclined to cast their lot in with it. Ac-



A SLAVE CHAIN.

cordingly, when Carolina and Georgia gave up to the Union those districts which afterward became Tennessee and Alabama, they specially stipulated

that Congress should not interfere with slavery in those Territories. As the Southerners favored slavery on political grounds, so the Northerners opposed it. Thus, when, in 1820, it was proposed that Missouri be admitted as a State, a fierce struggle ensued. The North demanded that slavery should be prohibited in Missouri; the South denied the right of Congress to impose any such restriction. At last an arrangement was made, known as the Missouri Compromise. Slavery was permitted in Missouri; but, to compensate the North, it was provided that slavery should henceforth be prohibited north of 36° 30′ north latitude in all new Territories and new States.

As we have seen, the number of representatives which each State sent to Congress was determined by the number of its inhabitants, and the slaves were reckoned, not in full, but at the rate of three-fifths. This gave



I. l. Calhoun

the Southern States a distinct interest in increasing their number of slaves. Thus they learnt to look on slavery as the sheetanchor of their political power. And as the differences between the North and South on matters of commerce and foreign policy grew wider, so much the more firmly did the South hold to slavery. In this, as in the matter of Free Trade, Calhoun was the great leader and representative of Southern opinion. The ascendency of the South, and above all that of his own State, were the objects to which his whole life was devoted, and, as was but natural, he looked on slavery, the corner-stone of that ascendency, with like devotion. In this con-

test the South enjoyed one great advantage. They were united; the North was not. The South were almost to a man Democrats. In the North, the most eminent men, and especially the New England merchants, were nearly all Federals; but there were many Northern Democrats who were allied with the South.

In spite of the Southern anxiety for the spread of slavery, enough of the old feeling against it still remained for various measures to be passed against the slave trade. By the Treaty of Ghent both nations pledged themselves to oppose it. In 1820 it was declared by Congress to be piracy; and by the Ashburton treaty the two nations agreed to employ a joint squadron on the African coast to suppress it.

We may now take up the general history where we left off, and trace those events which brought the contest between the North and South to a head. In 1821 Mexico threw off the yoke of Spain, and became an independent Republic. In 1827, and again in 1829, attempts were made by the United States to purchase from Mexico Texas, a fertile territory adjacent to the Southern States, and resembling the best parts of them. Mexico, however, refused to part with it. Soon afterwards a number of emigrants from the Southern States moved into Texas. In 1835 the inhabitants of Texas, headed by one Houston, a Virginian adventurer, rose against the Mexican government. They defeated the forces sent against them, captured Santa Anna, the President of Mexico, and forced from him an acknowledgment of their independence. They then formed Texas into a republic, with a constitution modelled on that of the United States, and made Houston president. In less than a year the people of Texas asked to be joined to the United States. Indeed it was generally believed that from the outset this had been the object of the Southern adventurers who went The South were extremely anxious for their admission. The soil and elimate of Texas fitted it for slave labor, and thus it was sure, if it were admitted and slavery allowed there, to swell the strength of the Slave States. All the ablest statesmen in the North were strongly opposed to its admission. They pointed out that it would involve the nation in a war with Mexico, that it would strengthen the South unduly, and lead to disputes which might rend the Union asunder. Webster put forward

these views strongly. Van Buren, a Democrat, and Clay, a Southerner, went with him. Calhoun, alone among statesmen of note, was in favor of annexation, avowedly as a means of strengthening the Slave States. Adams and a number of members of Congress drew up a protest, pointing out that all the proceedings about Texas had for "their objects the perpetuation of slavery and the continual ascendency of the slave power," and going on to say that annexation would "not only result in a dissolution of the Union, but fully justify it." But the Democrats were bent on annexation.

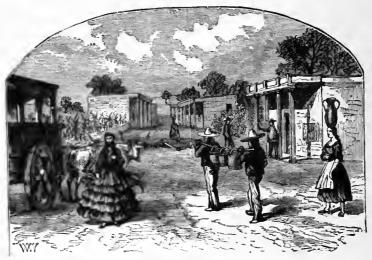


A TEXAS RANGER.

They refused to support Van Buren for the Presidency, and brought forward an obscure man named Polk, who opposed Clay, and was elected. The Whigs then, seeing that annexation was certain, tried to lessen the evil

by providing that in half the newly-acquired territory slavery should be prohibited. They failed, however, to carry this. It was finally arranged that Texas should be at once admitted, and four additional States gradually formed out of the newly-acquired land. As regarded slavery, the old line of the Missouri Compromise was to be observed, but as that was two-hundred miles beyond the northernmost part of Texas the concession was of no value. Under these conditions, in 1845 Texas became one of the United States.

As might have been expected, Mexico did not sit down tamely under the loss of Texas. The United States government, fearing some attempt.

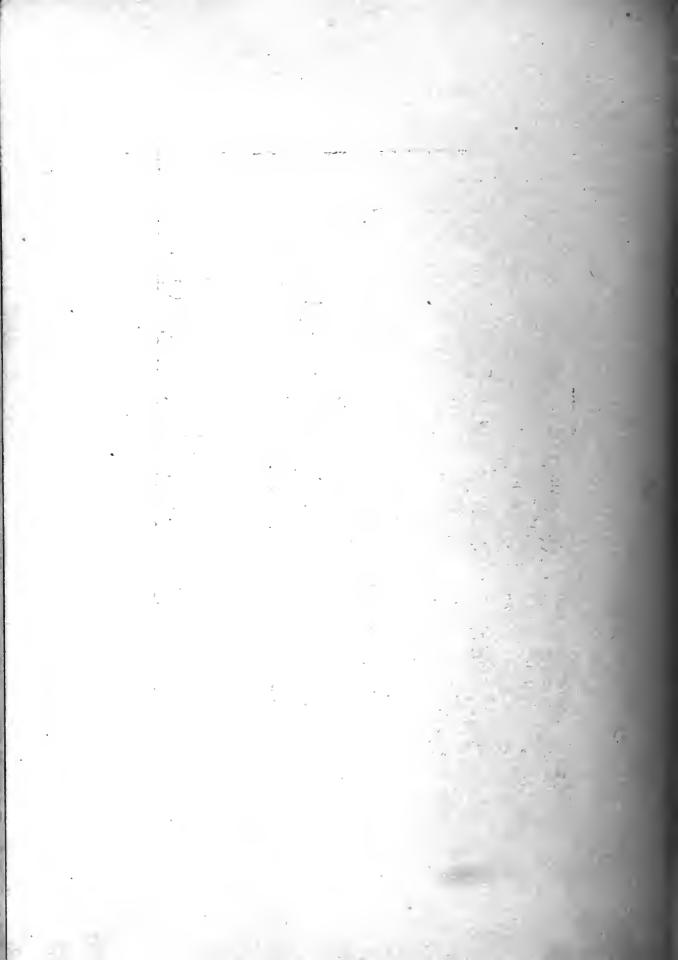


A MEXICAN TOWN.

to recover their new territory, garrisoned it with a small force. commander, General Taylor, was warned by the Mexican government that, if he advanced beyond a certain boundary, it would be taken as a declaration of war. He disregarded this warning, and the war began. some unimportant operations in the west, in which the Americans were easily victorious, Taylor took possession of the town of Matamoras. By June, 1846, his force was brought by fresh reinforcements up to six thousand. With this he marched on Monterey, a strong place, where the Mexicans had concentrated their forces to the number of ten thousand. After three days' hard fighting, Monterey fell. Taylor's force, however, was too much weakened for him to venture on an advance. Early in 1847 Santa. Anna, the President of Mexico, marched against Taylor with twenty thousand men. Taylor, with five thousand men, advanced to meet him. The Mexicans made the first attack at Buena Vista. Partly through Taylor's. accidental absence, the Americans were for a while thrown into confusion,. but upon his return they rallied. The battle was indecisive, but next morn-



CONQUEST OF NEW MEXICO.



ing the Mexicans withdrew. In the meantime another army had invaded Mexico in the west, and had conquered California with scarcely any difficulty, except what arose from the nature of the country. In the spring of this year an invading force of twelve thousand men sailed under General Scott, the American commander-in-chief. On the 9th of March they reached Vera Cruz. This place was very strongly fortified, but in every other respect wretchedly unprovided with means of resistance. The Americans were allowed to land unresisted; they threw up earthworks and



A MEXICAN FARM-HOUSE.

opened fire on the place from sea and land. After four days' bombardment, to which the besieged made no attempt to reply, the place surrendered. Scott then marched inland and defeated Santa Anna, who had taken a strong position at Sierra Gordo. The Americans then advanced unchecked within fifteen miles of the city of Mexico. Here serious operations really began. At the time of the Spanish conquest the city of Mexico was surrounded by a lake. This was drained by Cortez, and the city consequently now stood in the middle of a valley. The approaches to it were guarded by a number of strong fortresses, and a canal forming a moat belted the city. One by one these outlying fortifications were captured, and on the 14th of September the American army fought its way into the capital. After this the Mexicans made no further resistance. From a military point of view, the ehief importance of the war was the education which it gave to the American officers, especially in the art of marching troops through an enemy's country eut off from their own base. The most distinguished officers in the great Northern and Southern war had learned their business in Mexico, and such marches, daringly planned and success-

fully carried out, were among its most conspicuous features.

On the 2d of February, 1848, peace was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo. Mexico resigned her claim to Texas, and also handed over New Mexico and California to the United States for a payment of fifteen million dollars. By far the most important part of the acquisition was California. This gave the United States the Pacific as well as the Atlantic seaboard. In fact, it may be looked on as, in some sort, the completion of that great westward movement which had been going on during the whole of this century. The possession of California made it certain that the American people must in time form one continuous community across the whole continent of America.

The only other noticeable feature in Polk's Presidency was the dispute with Great Britain as to the north-west boundary between the British possessions and a district belonging to the United States called Oregon. Polk and the Democratic party laid claim, without a shadow of foundation, to territory which twenty-five years earlier had been universally recognized as British. So resolutely was this claim urged that there seemed at one time danger of war. Webster, however, with the same anxiety to preserve peace which had guided him in framing the Ashburton treaty, opposed the Democrats. For this he was bitterly denounced as having, both in this case and in the Ashburton treaty, betrayed his country. But the claims put forward by the Democrats were so clearly untenable that they were abandoned, and the boundary proposed by Webster was adopted. In 1848 this north-west district was formed into a Territory with the name of Oregon, and five years later a fresh Territory was taken out of it, called Washington.

In 1849 Polk was succeeded by General Taylor, who died on the 9th of July following. His successor, Vice-President Fillmore, was a well-meaning and fairly sensible man, but unfit for the difficult times in which his lot was cast. The forebodings of Webster and the other Northern statesmen as to the result of the increase of territory was soon fulfilled. California claimed to be admitted as a State, and the newly-acquired districts were to be settled as Territories. The question then arose whether slavery was to be permitted in these districts. It seemed at first that, if they were left to themselves, slave-labor would prevail there, as their natural character was suited to that system. But the gold discoveries in California had drawn thither numbers of free workmen. Consequently it was clear that, if it was left to the majority of the inhabitants to settle the question, they were sure to vote against slavery. There were various circumstances which made the South specially anxious that slavery should be admitted into California. They believed that, once admitted, it would become prevalent, and that California would be added to the number of Slave States. Moreover, the hostility to slavery was growing stronger in the North. The Northern States were

showing themselves backward in helping the South to recover runaway slaves. Moreover, two Free States, Wisconsin and Iowa, had been lately added to the Union, and the Slave States were anxious to recover the influence which they had thus lost. Hitherto they had taken up the ground that slavery was a question to be dealt with by each State for itself. Now they changed their ground, and declared that it was unjust to allow the government of any State or Territory to prevent any citizen of the United States from emigrating with his property, that is to say his slaves, into the newly-acquired lands. The contest began in 1846, while the acquisition of the land in question was still doubtful. In that year David Wilmot of Pennsylvania brought forward a motion, providing that slavery should be excluded from all Territories acquired by treaty. This, commonly called the Wilmot Proviso, was carried in the House of Representatives, but defeated in the Senate. Next year it was again proposed with a like result. Calhoun met this by a series of resolutions, declaring that any such measure would deprive the slave-holding States of their rights, and would tend to subvert the Union. So fierce did the strife become that many of the most thoughtful statesmen began to fear separation or civil war. In this crisis Clay, now a man of seventy-two, and in broken health, came forward as a peace-maker. Like Webster, who now supported him, Clay had always held a moderate position between the two extreme parties. His proposal was that the question of slavery in California and in the new Territories should be left to the local governments. This was a concession to the South in the matter of Territories, to the North in the matter of California. He also proposed that the inland slave-trade should be abolished in the District of Columbia, but that provision should be made for the stricter enforcement of the law for recovering runaway slaves in Free States. The success of this scheme, called Clay's Omnibus Bill, was in a great measure due to the support of Webster, who, in one of his most eloquent speeches, pointed out the danger of separation. During this struggle the South lost its great leader, Calhoun, who died at the age of sixty-eight.

Fillmore was succeeded as President by Pierce, a man much of the same stamp as Polk. His Presidency was conspicuous for a number of petty quarrels with foreign nations. He and his cabinet contrived to embroil the United States with Great Britain, Denmark, Spain, Brazil, Paraguay, and the Sandwich Islands. In internal politics there was a lull. Clay's bill had brought peace, but only for a while. A great change had gradually come over both North and South in the matter of slavery. In the beginning of the century the feeling about slavery had been much the same in the North and South. Both regarded it as morally evil, and looked forward to a time when it should die out. Indeed there seems to have been a stronger feeling against it among the Southern planters, who knew its evils, than among the

Northern merchants. As late as 1831 and 1832 the Assembly of Virginia discussed the question of extinguishing slavery. But gradually this feeling changed. Slavery was the keystone on which the political power of the South rested; and they came to value it, and we may almost say to love it,



A BLOODHOUND.

for its own sake. So far from regarding it as an evil to be gradually extinguished, they openly defended it as the only proper and wholesome form of society, and any one in the South who ventured to speak against slavery was in danger of his life. On the other hand, a strong feeling had been growing up in the North against slavery. A small but active party had sprung up, called Abolitionists, who denounced slavery, and published books setting forth its evils, and telling

stories, some no doubt false and exaggerated, but many certainly true, of the horrible cruelties perpetrated by Southern slave-holders. At first this party was almost as unpopular in the North as in the South, and the publisher of the first Abolition newspaper, William Garrison, was nearly pulled to pieces by a mob. Gradually, however, the Abolition party gained numbers and influence, and ventured to put forward the doctrine that Congress ought to suppress slavery. Moreover, they assisted slaves to escape, thereby breaking the fugitive-slave law. When we consider what sufferings the re-capture of a runaway often brought with it, it is hard to blame men for resisting it, and breaking a law which they believed to be unjust. Yet, considering how



EXODUS OF SLAVES.

important it was not to irritate the South, or to give them any just ground for complaint, such doings were to be regretted. Many leading Northern statesmen felt this. They believed that slavery would gradually die out of itself, that the Abolitionists were only infuriating the South and hardening it in its support of slavery, and that the only effect of their efforts would be to break up the Union. In 1846 a political party sprang up called Free-soilers, who opposed slavery, but by constitutional means, namely, by supporting the Wilmot Proviso. This

party put forward Van Buren as its candidate at the Presidential election in 1845, but was defeated. Before long they played a very important part in American history, under the name of the Republican Party.

In 1857 an event occurred, which strengthened the Northern feeling against slavery. A case was tried on appeal before the Supreme Court, concerning the freedom of a negro, Dred Scott. Chief Justice Taney's de-

cision was understood to lay down the following rules:—I. That negroes, although free, could only be citizens of some one particular State, but not of the Union, and so could not enjoy any of the rights secured by the United States Constitution. II. That Congress had no power to forbid slavery in any Territory. III. That slaves, if bought in Slave States, could then be moved to Free States and still remain slaves. This judgment made the Abolitionists feel that the pressure of slavery was far more severe, and the task of abolition far more difficult, than they had thought.

In 1854 part of the Missouri Compromise was repealed. This left every Territory free to take its own course about slavery. The result was that the Territory of Kansas became a battle-ground for the two parties. The North wished that a majority of the inhabitants should be against slavery; the South for it. Each kept pouring in fresh emigrants to outnumber the



LAWRENCE, KANSAS, IN 1857.

other. At first the South was successful, and a code of laws was established with many and stringent provisions on behalf of slavery. This was brought about, it is said, not by legitimate emigrants, but by a mob of low Southerners, with no occupation and no real connection with Kansas, who passed across the border, took possession of the polling places, and carried the elections against the real citizens. A succession of outrages, amounting almost to a civil war on a small scale, followed. At last, however, the party from the North was successful, and Kansas was definitely settled as a free State.

Pierce was succeeded in 1857 by Buchanan. Of all the American Presidents he seems to have been the most utterly unfit for his place. The main events of his Presidency will be better mentioned when we come to deal with the war. One, however, may be noticed now, as it stands by itself and has no direct connection with the political proceedings of the time. That was the execution of John Brown. He was a New Englander, descended from the original Puritan settlers. His four sons were among the Northerners who fought to keep slavery out of Kansas. Not content with joining and helping them, he led a sort of crusade against slavery into the South. He was attacked at Harper's Ferry in Virginia by the United States troops, as well as by the State militia. After a desperate fight, in which most of his followers were killed, he was himself taken and hanged. His attempt was lawless, and, considering the time and the temper of the South, it was unwise. Yet he deserves the credit due to all who lay down their lives in a hopeless struggle for what they believe to be right and just.



## CHAPTER XXIV.

THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY.

BE contest for the election of Buchanan's successor was marked by a new subdivision of parties. The Democrats were split into two divisions. The main issue on which the Democrats separated was that of allowing each Territory to settle for itself whether slavery should be permitted within it. The Southern Democrats held that this was an unfair interference with the rights of slaveholders. Moreover, this section of the Democratic party showed signs of favoring the reestablishment of the African slave-trade. On these points

the Northern and Southern Democrats separated. The former brought forward, as their candidate for the Presidency, Douglas, United States Senator from Illinois. The extreme Democrats, chiefly the Southerners, brought forward Breckinridge of Kentucky, who was serving as Vice-President under Buchanan. The old Whigs, the followers of Webster, under the name of the Constitutional Union party, brought forward Bell of Tennessee as their candidate. The Republicans, which had grown out of the old freesoil party, supported Abraham Lincoln. He had been born in Kentucky

and brought up in Indiana. His father was a poor man of unsettled habits, with no regular occupation. The son, Abraham, emigrated when young to Illinois. Abraham Lincoln, before he was thirty, had been a boatman, a sailmaker, a shopkeeper, and a lawyer. Besides this, he had fought in the Black Hawk war, and had sat in the legislature of Illinois. In some respects he may be compared with Patrick Henry. Both were men of humble origin, rough and uncultivated in manner, and with little outward show of the qualities which ensure worldly success. In both, political conflict called forth powers of which their every-day life gave no promise. Both owed their success as speakers, not to culture or learning, but to the earnestness of their convictions and the native vigor of their minds. But Lincoln had none of that brilliancy of imagination and vivid strength of speech which made Henry the foremost orator among the statesmen of the Revolution. On the other hand, he far surpassed Henry in worldly wisdom, in self-control and patience, and in the art of availing himself of the weaknesses of others and making them the instruments of his own success. In 1846 Lincoln was elected representative of Illinois, and before long he became known as a rising statesman. He was proposed unsuccessfully as Vice-President in 1856, and in 1860 was brought forward as the Republican eandidate for the Presidency. Though not a professed Abolitionist, he was more in harmony with the Abolition party than any of the other three candidates. From the outset of his public life, Lincoln had been careful not to . pledge himself too strictly to any one party. In the matter of slavery he had been especially eautious. He clearly saw the difficulties which beset any seheme for freeing the negroes, but his sympathies were in a great measure with the Abolitionists. When in Congress, he had supported the Wilmot proviso, and had himself brought forward a Bill for gradually freeing the slaves in the District of Columbia. He had repeatedly denounced the evils of slavery, though, like many other wise men, he confessed himself unable to overcome the difficulties in the way of abolition. He and his supporters now declared that Congress ought to forbid the introduction of slavery into the Territories, and on this point lay the main issue between himself and his opponents. Thus he rallied round him all the anti-slavery feeling in the North, both that of the extreme Abolitionists and of those who were for opposing slavery by more moderate means.

In November, 1860, Lincoln was elected President. The Southern Demoerats at once felt that their political ascendency was doomed. Many of them had deelared before the election that the South would quit the Union if defeated. Ever since the days of Nullification, South Carolina had taken the lead among the Southern States. Nowhere was the passion for slavery so strong; nowhere did the Southern planters view the Northern merchants with so much hatred and contempt. Besides, the position of South Carolina inclined her to take the lead in secession. She could not be reached from the North except through other slave-holding States—Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. They would be at once compelled either to assist in subduing her or to join her; neutrality would be impossible, and the South Carolinians did not doubt which side their neighbors would take. On December the 17th, six weeks after Lincoln's election, a Convention of the State of South Carolina met at Charleston, and formally repealed their acceptance of the United States Constitution in 1788. The event was celebrated with public rejoicings; cannon were fired, and a procession was made to the grave of Calhoun. A South Carolina newspaper, by way of asserting the complete severance of the Union, published news from the other States under the head of "Foreign Intelligence."

In name and form the proceeding of South Carolina was a peaceful one. The Convention sent Commissioners to Washington to arrange the transfer



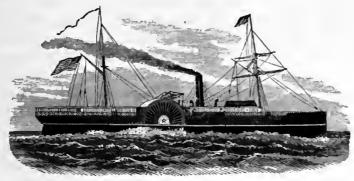
SAND-BAG BATTERY AT FORT MOULTRIE.

of the forts, arms, and other property of the Federal government within the State of South Carolina. It was agreed by the commissioners and the government at Washington that, while those arrangements were being discussed, no hostile action should be taken on either side. In spite of this agreement, hostilities broke out. Major Ander-

son held Fort Moultrie, one of the smaller works in Charleston harbor, with a garrison of seventy men, for the Federal government. He asked for a reinforcement, but Floyd, the Secretary of War, refused it, on the ground that to grant it would enrage the secessionists. Anderson then spiked his guns, carried off his stores, and moved into Fort Sumter, a stronger work, also in Charleston harbor. This act was held by the South Carolinians and their supporters to be a breach of faith. Floyd recommended the withdrawal of the garrison, and, when this was not carried out, he resigned. The commissioners refused to carry on further negotiations till the garrison was withdrawn. Buchanan gave a hesitating answer, saying that the acknowledgment of the independence of South Carolina was a question for Congress, not for the President, and refusing either to approve of or condemn Anderson's proceedings. The commissioners answered this with an insolent letter, denouncing Anderson's conduct, and railing at Buchanan for not condemn-

ing him and withdrawing the garrison. Buchanan, with the approval of his cabinet, refused to consider the letter, and the commissioners went home. On January the 5th, the Federal Government at last took active measures. A steamer, the Star of the West, was sent to Fort Sumter with reinforcements and munitions. The State government of South Carolina was warned of this by a member of Buchanan's cabinet. They made preparations for the arrival of the ship and fired upon her. Being without cannon, she made no attempt to resist, and sailed home.

The state of the government at Washington favored the enterprise of the secessionists. The result of a Presidential election is known as soon as the electors are chosen in the various States. But the new President does not come into office for some months afterward. Thus, although Lincoln was practically elected in November 1860, he was not formally "inaugurated" till March 1861. Even with a strong government there is always



STAR OF THE WEST.

a danger that the party whose term of power is about to expire will be inattentive to the public welfare, and that its hands will be weakened by the certainty of its approaching end. Buchanan's government, always feeble, was utterly powerless at this crisis. Had a man like Andrew Jackson been in power, secession might have been crushed in its very outset. Buchanan only addressed a message to Congress which recognized the grievances of the South in the matter of slavery, but made no attempt to grapple with the difficulties of the case. In Congress, South Carolina found influential supporters. Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, proposed in the Senate that any State should have the right to demand the withdrawal of all Federal troops from its territory. Mason, of Virginia, also proposed that the laws empowering the President to employ the army and navy for enforcing the laws in any State should be suspended in South Carolina. Sympathy with South Carolina soon showed itself even more strongly. Early in February, 1861, a Convention of six States, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida, was held at Montgomery in Alabama. A Federal

Constitution was drawn up for these six States, modeled on the Constitution of the United States. The main difference was that the President was chosen for six years, and could not be re-elected, and that some portion of his power of appointing government officials was transferred to the Senate. Jefferson Davis, a man of ability, was chosen President, and Alexander Stephens of Georgia Vice-President. The latter, upon his entry to office, made a remarkable speech, setting forth that slavery was to be the corner-stone of the new Confederacy, and that this was the first government which had recognized and acted upon the principle that the inferior races were intended by God and nature to be in bondage to the superior. The Middle States were invited to join the new Confederacy.

Neither side seem at the outset to have foreseen the results of secession. The Northerners had heard the threat of separation so often, that they had at last come to look upon it as no more than a threat, made to extort political concessions. The South, on the other hand, emboldened by Buchanan's weakness and trusting to their alliance with the northern Democrats, seem to have anticipated little or no resistance. They utterly underrated the iron will and set purpose of their new ruler, the growing hatred to slavery, and, above all, the passionate love of the North for the Union, and their fixed determination not to suffer it to be broken up. Yet the South did not so far reckon on the forbearance of their opponents as to neglect preparations for defence. For some time before South Carolina seceded, the Southerners in the employment of government had been laying their plans to cripple the action and undermine the resources of the Federal Government. Foremost in this policy was Floyd of Virginia, the Secretary of War. He had transferred more than a hundred thousand muskets and rifles from Northern arsenals to the South. He had also placed a large portion of the army under the command of General Twiggs, who handed over his forces and stores. with more than a million of dollars from the

of the army under the command of General Twiggs, who handed over his forces and stores, with more than a million of dollars from the national funds, to the secessionists. The same policy was adopted with the navy. Ships were sent off to distant stations, and many of those that remained were carried over by their commanders to the side of the South. Nothing can justify or palliate the conduct of men like Floyd.

WAR BALLOON.

They deliberately used the opportunities which their official position gave them to destroy the power of the government which they served. Meanwhile Buchanan, paralyzed by the treachery of his cabinet, by the contempt with which all parties alike looked on him, and, it is said, by the fear of assassination, remained utterly helpless and inactive. Whatever might be the right policy, Buchanan's was certainly wrong. If the Southern States were to be kept within the Union, every step should have been at once taken to check the growth of their military power, and reclaim them either by persuasion or force. If the North was quietly to acquiesce in secession, measures should have been taken at once for a friendly and peaceful separation. Yet Buchanan's conduct was only that of a weak and irresolute man in a position far beyond his powers. Part of the evil, too, was due to the arrangement which leaves public affairs in the hands of a party after the nation has shown by the Presidential election that that party no longer enjoys its confidence or represents its views.

On March the 4th, 1861, Lincoln formally entered on office. In his opening address he spoke out clearly and unhesitatingly on the one great subject, the preservation of the Union. Secession, he said, meant rebellion, and to acknowledge the right of any State to secede was to destroy the central government and to introduce anarchy. The Constitution, he said, must be enforced throughout the United States—peacefully, if it might be, but, if needed, by force. On the subject of slavery, he announced that he had neither the wish nor the right to meddle with it where it already existed. By this he clearly separated himself from the thoroughgoing Abolitionists.

The South soon took active measures for resistance. Volunteer forces were assembled at Charleston and at Pensacola in Florida. The force at Charleston was placed under the command of Beauregard, a Louisianian of



INAUGURATION OF LINCOLN.

French descent, who distinguished himself throughout the war by his activity and enterprise. He at once erected batteries at Fort Sumter. In March, commissioners from the new Confederacy came to Washington to demand an audience of the President. This was refused, and Seward, the Secretary of State, who at this time was the most influential member of the cabinet, told them that he could not recognize them as holding any official, position. They answered that the refusal of an audience was practically a declaration of war, and that they received it as such. This was immediately followed by an attack on Fort Sumter. The guns of the fort were ill-placed and its supplies insufficient. After three days' resistance, Anderson surrendered, without the loss of a single life on either side.

The fall of Fort Sumter was the signal for action on the part of the North. Lincoln issued a proclamation declaring that the seceding States were obstructing the execution of the laws; that the ordinary forms of procedure were insufficient for the occasion, and that he had called out the militia to suppress the unlawful combinations existing in the South. Troops



FORT SUMTER.

were brought down from the North for the defence of Washington. The feeling of the Marylanders was shown by the conduct of a mob, who attacked the soldiers during their passage through Baltimore and killed some of them. The establishment of these troops at Washington cut off Maryland from the other Southern States, and withheld her from following her natural bent, and joining the new Confederacy. The proclamation calling out the militia was quickly followed by another, declaring the Southern ports to be in a state of blockade. This was in one way a mistake on the part of the Federal Government. By a rule of International Law, a government cannot blockade its own ports, but only those of a foreign enemy. Thus the blockade was an admission by the North of the point for which the South contended, namely, that it was entitled to be treated as a separate and independent power.

So far it was uncertain what line of policy Virginia would adopt. Clearly she could not remain neutral. By refusing to help the Federal Government she would practically make herself a party to secession. Her interests and her sympathies seemed to draw her both ways. She was a slaveholding State, and so far her interests lay with the South. But she had never thrown herself into the cause of slavery with the same passionate earnestness as South Carolina, nor had she ever shown the same bitter enmity to the North. Her commercial interests too were not wholly the

same as those of the South. A large portion of her resources was derived from the breeding and rearing of negro slaves; and the re-opening of the African slave-trade, as advocated by the South, would have been a heavy blow to her prosperity. Moreover, the native State of Washington and

Jefferson and Madison could not but be loath to quit that Union in whose creation she had so large a share. Still she had ever clung to the doctrine of State rights. That view now prevailed, and the State Convention decided, albeit against the wishes of a large minority, to join the Southern Confederacy. Even if we blame South Carolina, or the Southern States generally, for Virginia we can feel nothing but pity. On no State did the burden of the war fall so heavily. Yet she was not responsible for secession itself, and only in part for those events which led to it. Compelled to choose a side in a war which she had not kindled, she reluctantly took that towards which her natural



A TORPEDO.

sympathies inclined her, and which her political training taught her to believe was in the right. The example of Virginia was soon followed by Texas, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee. In July the seat of the new government was fixed at Richmond. The members of the new Confederacy were known as Confederates; the inhabitants of the Northern States who held by the old Constitution, as Federals. There is no special meaning in the distinction. It arose from the fact that Federal had always been the name for central institutions, as distinguished from those belonging to the different States, and that the party who had opposed the extreme doctrine of State rights in the early days of the Constitution were called Federalists.



## CHAPTER XXV.

THE WAR OF SECESSION.

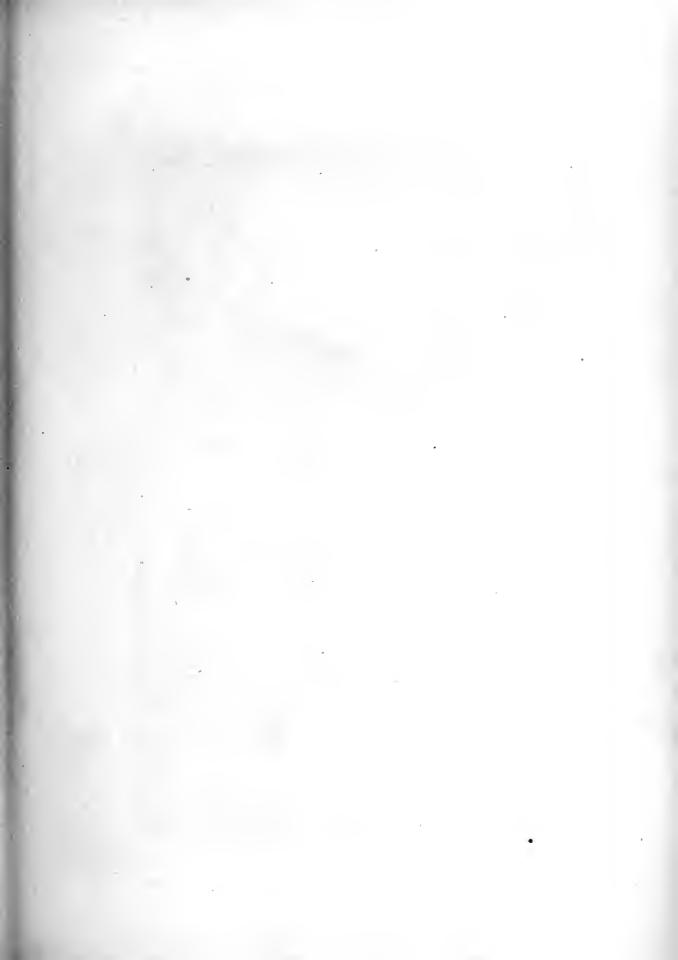
may be well, before going further, to give some idea of the means and prospects with which each party entered on the war. As far as mere military resources went, there was no very wide difference. The advantage which the Federal Government ought to have enjoyed from the possession of the national arsenals and stores was in a great measure lost, owing to the treachery of those Southerners who had held public offices. Neither side was at first well off for skilled officers. On the other hand, both in the North and South the absence of

aristocratic exclusiveness allowed the best men to come quickly to the front.



DURYEA'S ZOUAVES.

Thus the armies on both sides were soon led by men of ability, while there was a great want of soldierly skill and knowledge among the subalterns. In many ways the South furnished better raw material for soldiers than the North. The Southern planters were more given to outdoor pursuits, to

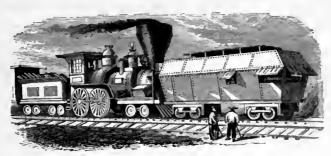




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out, it was clear that Washington, separated as it was from Virginia only by the Potomac, was one of the most vulnerable points in the Northern territory. Accordingly, the defence of the capital became the first object with the Federal Government. Earthworks were thrown up in the neighboring heights, and troops were posted across the Potomac to cover the city.

Before entering on the detailed history of the war, it will be well to get a general idea of the military position of both parties, and of their main objects. The object of the South was, of course, merely defensive. Her territory may be looked on as a vast fortress bounded by the Potomae, the Ohio, the Mississippi, and the Atlantic. Her armies did indeed, more than once, penetrate into the Northern territory. But such measures were merely like the sorties of a besieged garrison, intended to draw off or weaken the assailants, and had no permanent occupation or conquest in view. Four main lines of attack lay open to the Federals:—1. An invasion of Virginia from the north. 2. An invasion of Tennessee to the south-west of the Alleghanies.



RAILWAY BATTERY.

3. An attack from the sea-coast. 4. An invasion from the south-west, after they had obtained the control of the Mississippi. As the war showed, the real points on which the military strength of the Confederacy turned were the possession of the Mississippi and of those lines of railway which connected the south-western States with the coast. By mastering the Mississippi, the Federals would cut off their enemies from the rich States to the west of the river, besides interfering with the communication between the west and the sea. Possession of the Mississippi might be obtained either from the sea, or by following its course down from the north, or by a combined attack in both directions. By bearing in mind these general features of the war, operations spreading over many thousand miles and seemingly unconnected, are at once seen to form part of one distinct scheme of attack and defence. One very interesting feature of the war in a military point of view is that it was the first in which railways had ever played an important part. The effect of this was to lessen the advantage of superior numbers, as a small body of troops, dexterously handled, might be rapidly moved from point to point, and used successively against different portions of the enemy's force. This was of especial value to an army acting in its own country against invaders.

In July, the Northern and Southern armies confronted one another on the south side of the Potomac. The Southern army numbered about thirty thousand men, under Beauregard. The Northerners mustered forty thousand, under McDowell. His troops were ill-drilled and unsoldierly, and his officers inexperienced, but, as many of his men were enlisted only for three months, it was needful to do something at once, and accordingly he advanced. Both armies were in two divisions, the main force to the east, while two bodies of about eight thousand each, the Federals under Patterson, the Confederates under Johnston, faced each other about fifty miles further west. The two divisions of the Confederates enjoyed the great advantage of being connected by a line of railway. McDowell's plan was that Patterson should keep Johnston in check, while he himself attacked Beauregard. But this



STONEWALL JACKSON.

plan was thwarted by a difficulty which we have met with before. The Pennsylvania volunteers under Patterson refused to serve for a day longer than their engagement bound them. Patterson was obliged to withdraw, leaving McDowell to cope single-handed with Johnston and Beauregard. Johnston at once hurried, with all the troops he could bring up, to the assistance of the main body. On the morning of July the 21st, McDowell fell upon the right of the Confederate line, and drove them back. The Federal advance was stopped only by the Virginia troops under General Jackson. "There's Jack-

son standing like a stone wall," cried the Southern General Bee, to encourage his men, and "Stonewall Jackson" was the name by which the Virginia commander was ever after known. This check on the Federal right was soon turned into a repulse along the whole line. At the very crisis of the battle, the remainder of Johnston's force came up from the west, fell upon the Federal right, and rendered the victory complete. With undisciplined troops, however brave they may be, a defeat is almost sure to become a rout, and the Federals fled from the field a panic-stricken mob, without a semblance of order or discipline. From a military point of view the result was of no great importance. The Federal loss was not more than three thousand in all, and their enemies gained no advantage of position. The real value of victory to the South was the confidence and enthusiasm which was called out by so complete a triumph at the very outset of the war. But probably the hopeful and exulting spirit which the battle kindled in the South was equaled, if not outweighed, by its effect on the Nor-

therners. Their defeat did not so much dishearten as sober them. Hitherto they had been possessed by a spirit of idle and vain-glorious confidence. They had fancied that secession could be crushed in two or three months. Now they saw that a great war was before them, which would tax their energies and their resources to the utmost. They learned that success could be bought only at a heavy price, and they soon showed that they were not unwilling to pay it.

It will be impossible in the history of the war to take in all the events in strict order of time. If we did so, we should be constantly shifting our view from one scene of operations to another, and be unable to get any connected idea of each. Many different sets of operations were going on together, which can only be kept clear and distinct by tracing out one for a considerable time, and then going back to another. We must now go back

to events earlier than Bull Run. Virginia, as we have seen, was not unanimous in its resolution to secede. The wish to remain in the Union prevailed in the western part of the State beyond the Alleghanies. The inhabitants of this district wished to form themselves into a separate State, and to cleave to the Union. A convention met, which carried out the wishes of the inhabitants by establishing a separate government. This was regarded by the other Virginians as treachery to the State, which had a higher claim on their loyalty than the Union. Accordingly it became of im-



GEN. McClellan.

portance both to the Federals and to the Confederates to secure this district. General McClellan advanced towards West Virginia with a considerable force. The defending force, numbering about eight thousand, was stationed at Rich Mountain, on the western slope of the Alleghanies. When McClellan approached, they attempted to retreat, but were forced to give battle, and were completely defeated. Later in the year a Confederate force under Lee attempted to dislodge the Federals, but without success. It was not, however, till two years later that West Virginia was admitted into the Union as a separate State.

During the summer and autumn of 1861 important operations went forward in the west. The States of Missouri and Kentucky were, from their position, of great importance in the war. They commanded the Upper Mississippi and the southwest portion of the seceding States. Accordingly, it was an object with each party to secure them. Both States would have wished to remain neutral, if they could have done so, but, as with

Virginia, this was impossible. In each the sympathies of the inhabitants were about equally balanced. As Kentucky would not join the Southern Confederacy, in September General Polk, a Louisianian bishop who had turned soldier, invaded and took possession of it. In Missouri, a long and severe struggle between the two parties within the State was settled by the Federals occupying it with an army. In both Kentucky and Missouri there was some fighting during the autumn of 1861, which resulted somewhat in favor of the Confederates, but nothing decisive was done. In the autumn of 1861, the Federal Government created a separate military province, called the Western Department, with its centre at St. Louis on the Mississippi. This was placed under the command of General Halleck. His part in the war was a very important one. His understanding of military geography and his judgment as to the general course of operations were probably equal to that of any man in either army. He saw that the true policy of the Federals was to advance up the Tennessee and the Cumberland,



GENERAL HALLECK.

a river which runs for the most part parallel to it, and so to penetrate into the south-western States, and to master the upper valley of the Mississippi. To carry out this it was necessary to take Fort Henry on the Tennessee, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. Accordingly, at the beginning of 1862, General Grant with seventeen thousand men was sent against Fort Henry. It was evident that the place could not be held, but the Confederate general in command made a determined resistance, and enabled the main body of his troops to escape to Fort Donelson. The Federal gunboats then attacked Fort Donelson, but were beaten off. The Confederates, however, finding themselves

outnumbered by the besieging force, attempted to cut their way through, but were driven back, mainly through the resolution of Grant and his subordinate Smith. Part of the garrison escaped during the night and the rest surrendered. By this victory the Federals gained about ten thousand prisoners, twenty thousand small-arms, and sixty-five guns, with a loss of little more that two thousand men. It also gave them possession of Kentucky, and of a large part of Tennessee. Moreover, the Confederate line of defence was driven back some fifty miles, and Nashville, a large and important town, and Columbus, a fortress which commanded the upper waters of the Mississippi, were abandoned to the Federals. This was soon followed up by further successes. The Confederates held New Madrid on the right bank of the Mississippi, and No. 10 Island just opposite. General Pope

was sent from St. Louis to attack them. Batteries were erected against New Madrid, whereupon the garrison fled, leaving large quantities of arms and ammunition. No. 10 Island was then bombarded from the river, but to no purpose. Pope could not attack it, as it could only be reached from the left bank, and he could not bring up boats to earry his troops across, owing to the Confederate batteries which commanded the river. This difficulty was at length overcome by cutting a canal twelve miles long across a horse-shoe formed by the river. By this means transports were brought down the river. Pope crossed, and the island surrendered, with nearly seven thousand men and large supplies. Following up this success, the Federals in two engagements defeated the Confederate fleet of gunboats and obtained possession of the Upper Mississippi as far as the frontier of Tennessee.

In spite of these disasters, the Confederate forces in the west proceeded to act on the offensive. The position of the two armies was not altogether unlike that at Bull Run. Each was in two divisions, the main bodies facing



FEDERAL GUNBOATS.

each other under Grant and Beauregard, the smaller division also facing each other under Buell and Sydney Johnston. This Johnston must not be confounded with the other Confederate general of that name, Joseph Johnston, the hero of Bull Run. As at Bull Run, the Southern armies had the advantage of railway communication. Their commanders resolved to unite, and to deal with Grant before Buell could join him. This scheme was successful, and the whole Confederate army under Johnston marched against Grant. The numbers were about equal, forty thousand on each side. Early on the morning of April the 6th the Confederates attacked. Many of the Federal troops were taken completely by surprise, and fell back in confusion. A second Bull Run seemed to be at hand, with this addition, that the Federals had a river immediately at their back, and were thus cut off from retreat. Such a misfortune was warded off by the determination with which General Sherman held his ground, and by the death of Johnston. Struck by a bullet, in the eagerness of victory

he disregarded the wound, and only learned its severity when he found himself fast bleeding to death. Had he lived, he would probably have followed up his success, and crushed Grant's demoralized army before Buell could come up. The delay saved the Federals. Grant was joined by Buell with twenty thousand men, and, with that dogged courage which distinguished him throughout the war, he returned next day to the attack. His troops, by rallying so readily and so successfully, showed 'that the panic of the day before was due to want of discipline, and not to cowardice. In the second engagement the Confederates were worsted, and withdrew in good order; their total loss in the two days was about eleven thousand, that of the Federals some three thousand more. Throughout these two days' engagements, called the Battle of Shiloh, there was little room for skilful tactics. It has been described as a gigantic bush-fight. From the nature of the ground, neither commander could get any comprehensive idea of the state of affairs, or even attempt to exercise control over more than a part of his army. Soon after this, the Confederate Government, considering its



GENERAL SHERMAN.

forces unequal to the task of holding Missouri and Arkansas, abandoned those States to the enemy. The troops withdrawn thence were concentrated under Beauregard at Corinth. Shortly after, the Federals took Memphis on the Mississippi, a town of considerable commercial importance, and valuable as a centre of railway communication.

On the Lower Mississippi the Federals had achieved even more brilliant and valuable successes. In no department was the North weaker at the outset than in its navy, and in none were so much energy and determination shown in rapidly making up for shortcomings. At the beginning

of 1861 there were only four ships fit for duty in harbors held by the Federal Government. All the rest of the national navy was either seized by the Confederates or was at foreign stations. Yet, by the end of the year, the blockade had been so successfully maintained, that a hundred and fifty vessels had been captured in the attempt to break through. Moreover, the Federals had taken Port Royal, a fortress on the coast between Charleston and Savannah, and of importance for the defence of those two places. This was followed by an unsuccessful endeavor to block up Charleston harbor by sinking ships, filled with stone, across its mouth. This attempt to destroy forever a valuable harbor, of great importance to Southern com-

merce, was not much to the credit of the Federal Government. The next-important naval attempt was of a far more glorious character. This was the capture of New Orleans by Admiral Farragut, whereby the Southern States were cut off from the lower waters of the Mississippi. Considering the great importance of the place, the Confederate Government do not seem to have done enough for its defence. In April, 1862, the Federal fleet entered the mouth of the river, and for six days and nights bombarded the fortification which guarded the entrance. On the morning of the 24th, before daybreak, the Federals fought their way up the river, past the

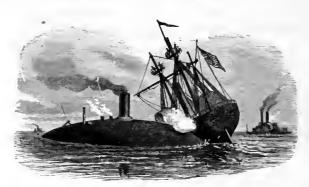


THE LEVEE AT NEW ORLEANS.

forts, and through the gunboats of the enemy. The Confederate flotillawas completely destroyed, while the assailants only lost one vessel. General Lovell, the commander at New Orleans, considering that it would be impossible to hold the city, withdrew his troops. Farragut took possession of the place, and was joined by General Butler with a land force, which had been at hand, though it had taken no part in the attack. The city was then placed under the military government of Butler. He keptorder, and the inhabitants do not seem to have suffered much under his rule. But his overbearing manner, his summary and, as it was considered, illegal execution of a citizen who had cut down the United States flag, and the brutal language of his public documents, earned for him, alone among all the Federal commanders, the universal hatred of the South.

Vicksburg was now the one Confederate stronghold on the Mississippi. It stands on a horseshoe of land and commands the river in both directions. Moreover it is protected on the north-west by the Yazoo, a river which flows into the Mississippi above the town, and it is also surrounded by swamps and forest. On June the 24th the Federal fleets from New Orleans and St. Louis united. The same manœuvre was tried here which had succeeded at New Madrid. A canal was cut across the horseshoe, and thus the Federal fleet was enabled to command the whole river without passing

the batteries of the town. The siege was marked by a most brilliant exploit on the part of a small Confederate ram, the *Arkansas*. She steamed out of the mouth of the Yazoo, fought her way through the Federal fleet of fifteen vessels, doing much damage to them, and anchored safely under the guns of Vicksburg. In July, after months of continuous bombardment, the Federals abandoned the attack.



RAM MANASSES.

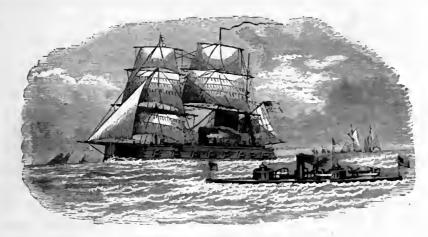
One feature in the naval history of the war deserves notice, since it ushered in a change of the greatest importance in naval warfare. This was the use of iron-clad vessels. The first of these that appeared in the war was a somewhat roughly-built ram with iron plating, called the *Manasses*, devised by a Confederate officer, Commodore Hollins.

She fell upon the Federal squadron which was blockading the mouth of the Mississippi, dashed into the midst of it, and put it to flight. Soon afterwards it became known that the Confederates were preparing a large iron-clad. This was the *Merrimac*, a steamer which had belonged to the Federal Government, and had been captured in Norfolk Navy-yard. The Federals set to work to build an iron-clad turret-ship, called the *Monitor*, to match her. Each worked hard to be the first in the field. In this the Confederates succeeded. On March the 8th, 1862, the *Merrimac* appeared in the mouth of the James River, and immediately destroyed two Federal vessels. She attacked a third, but, before she could complete its destruction, the *Monitor*, just launched, came to the rescue. She stood the shock of the *Merrimac*, which had been fatal to the wooden ships, and at last beat her off with much damage. This fight was the first fair trial of iron-clad ships.

The Southern Confederacy at the outset confidently expected help from foreign powers. But in this it was disappointed. The European nations all stood neutral. The British government excited the anger of the North by recognizing the South as belligerents. In the winter of 1861 an event occurred which threatened to embroil the Federal Government with Great Britain. The Confederate Government sent two agents, Messrs. Slidell and Mason, to England. They ran the blockade, and then sailed in an English steamer, the *Trent*, from Havana. Captain Wilkes, in the Federal warship San Jacinto, intercepted the Trent, ordered her to heave to, and when she refused, fired upon her. He then sent a party on board, and carried off

the agents to New York. This act was, in kind, not unlike those which had driven the Americans into the war of 1812, though it was a far more distinct and glaring breach of the law of nations. The British government at once demanded the liberation of the Southern agents, giving the Federal Government seven days to consider the matter. President Lincoln and Mr. Seward, the Secretary of State, saw that the act could not be justified, and the agents were released.

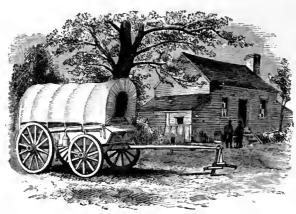
We must now go back somewhat in time to trace the operations on the Virginia frontier since Bull Run. A vast Federal force, called the Army of the Potomac, was being concentrated near Washington under General McClellan. In his hands it was gradually changed from a mere horde of undisciplined recruits into a well-drilled and well-appointed army. By



THE NEW IRONSIDES AND MONITORS.

February, 1862, this force had grown to about two hundred thousand. The autumn and winter of 1861 had passed, and nothing was done. For this inactivity McClellan was greatly blamed. He was a Democrat, and it was thought that his political sympathies withheld him from inflicting a crushing blow on the South. It must be said in his defence that, before he could fight, he had to create a serviceable army. The President, too, interfered with his arrangements by detaching troops under separate commands, and thwarted his wishes by sacrificing every other military object to the defence of Washington. In April, 1862, McClellan set out against Richmond with more than one hundred thousand men. He first marched into the peninsula between the Rappahannock and the James River. His first proceeding was to lay siege to Yorktown, a place garrisoned by eight thousand men under General Magruder. Elaborate preparations were made for opening fire, but, before they were completed, Magruder had withdrawn. An attempt was made to pursue Magruder, but his rear-guard checked the Federals at Wil-

liamsburg, and inflicted on them considerable loss. After this, McClellan advanced slowly on Richmond, while the Confederates retired before him. At this time the Federal army suffered severely from sickness. On May the 31st, the Confederates turned upon their pursuers at Fair Oaks, and, though overpowered by superior numbers, dealt them a serious blow. Soon after, Stuart, a Confederate general of cavalry, performed an exploit which deserves special mention. With one thousand five hundred horsemen he rode right round the Federal army, doing great damage, and for a while cutting off McClellan's communications with the rear. In the meantime operations were going on further to the west, which had an important influence on McClellan's movements. The Shenandoah River runs north-west, and joins the Potoniac about fifty miles above Washington. Here Jackson had been fighting with extraordinary success against a Federal force far larger than his own. By falling on the different divisions of the enemy in succession, he had inflicted on them three severe defeats, and, by seriously alarming the Federal government as to the safety of Washington, he had drawn off large



HOSPITAL AT FAIR OAKS.

forces which would otherwise have joined McClellan. He then by forced marches withdrew from the Shenandoah valley, and he had joined the Confederate army near Richmond before the enemy knew of his departure. That army was now under the command of General Lee. Lee was a Virginian of an old family, several of whose members had distinguished themselves in the Revolutionary war. Like many other Virginians, he had

reluctantly joined the secessionists in obedience to the commands of his State. It would have been hard to find a general more peculiarly fitted for the command of the Southern forces. An army far inferior to the enemy in number and resources specially needs the encouragement of personal loyalty and love for their commander, and no general ever called out those feelings more fully or more deservedly than Lee. Moreover his dashing and enterprising system of warfare was exactly suited to troops of great natural courage, who required to be buoyed up in a seemingly hopeless task by the prospect of brilliant success. Late in June, Lee advanced against McClellan and defeated him. In order to effect this, Lee had to leave Richmond in a great measure unguarded. McClellan did not avail himself of this by advancing, as he feared that he might be cut off from his supplies. He soon

abandoned all hope of an attack on Richmond, and withdrew his army. An attempt to harass his retreat was repulsed with severe loss, and he retired to a secure position on the James River. Considering how much time had been spent in organizing his army, and remembering that no cost had been spared in making all needful preparations for the campaign, it is impossible to acquit McClellan of the charges brought against him of over-caution and want of decision. His troops were indeed raw, but not more so than those with which Grant and Lee had successfully carried out a far bolder policy, while McClellan was far better furnished with supplies of every kind than those commanders. This much praise however must be given to him, that he never placed his troops in a position where a defeat would be fatal, that he conducted his retreat without suffering his army to become demoralized, and that the discipline which he introduced did much towards training the Northern armies for their later victories.

In June, 1862, the three armies which had been opposed to Jackson were placed under the command of Pope, fresh from his successes in the west.

He issued a boastful address, contrasting the success of the western army with the failure in Virginia, and sueering at McClellan's inaction. As might be supposed, after such a beginning, there was no cordial cooperation between the armies. In August, Pope advanced to the Rapidan River. Before marching he issued orders that his army was to live on the enemy's



MULES CARRYING WOUNDED MEN.

country, that if any Federal soldier was fired at from a house it was to be pulled down, and that Southern citizens refusing to give security for good conduct were to be sent south, and, if they returned, to be treated as spies. In this, Pope contrasted unfavorably with McClellan, who had done his best during his march through Virginia to save the country from the horrors of war. Pope's conduct excited great indignation in the South, and the Confederate Government issued orders that Pope and his commissioned officers should, if captured, be treated as common prisoners, not as prisoners of war. On August the 9th, Pope encountered a detachment of Lee's army under Jackson. The Federals were defeated in two battles, the first at Cedar Mountain, the other, somewhat later, at Gainsville, near the field of Bull Run. Early in September, Pope was driven back into the works of Washington, having lost thirty thousand men. He laid the blame of these defeats on McClellan, who, he said, had withheld from him the support

which he needed, and to which he was entitled. Pope, however, was super-seded, and McClellan was placed in command of the whole army.

By the defeat at Shiloh and the earlier Federal successes, the Confederate line was a second time driven back. Halleck advanced with great caution and deliberation towards Corinth, but before he could reach the place Beauregard had secretly withdrawn his forces. For this he was severely, though it would seem unjustly, blamed in the South, and was superseded by General Bragg. Soon after, Halleck was called off to undertake the defence of Washington, now threatened by the Confederate successes in Virginia. This left Grant in command of the western army. A large portion of his forces was sent off under Buell to attack Chattanooga. This place is on the west



SOLDIERS ON THE MARCH.

frontier of Georgia, on the Tennessee River, and was of great importance as a centre of railway communication for the south-west. The Confederates now set to work resolutely to repair their losses in the west. Fresh troops were raised. Not only was Bragg thus largely reinforced, but his position was a much stronger one than that which the Confederates had before held. The country through which the right of the Federal line now had to advance was swampy and difficult to march through. Accordingly, while the main body of the Confederates faced Buell, two smaller forces under Generals Van Dorn and Price were left to deal with Grant. Their first attempt was to dislodge the Federal force, twenty thousand strong, under General Rosecrans, from Corinth. But, though the Confederates were superior in num-

bers, they were defeated with heavy loss. Grant would have followed up this success by an advance on Vicksburg, but was withheld by a brilliant and successful attack made by Van Dorn on the Federal quarters at Holly Springs. By this the Federals lost supplies to the value of two million dollars. Soon after this, the Federal general Sherman was defeated at Chickasaw, while attempting to penetrate through the country between the Yazoo River and Vicksburg.

In the autumn of 1862 the war assumed a new character. Hitherto the Confederates had stood entirely on the defensive. Now they ventured to invade their enemy's territory, both in the west and near the coast. As we have seen, Bragg was set free with a strong army to act against Buell in Kentucky. His plan was to invade that State, both for the sake of the supplies which it contained and with the view of diverting the Federal

forces from their operations on the Mississippi. Hopes too were entertained that Kentucky might be induced by this pressure to join the Southern Confederacy. Serious operations were preceded by some dashing raids of irregular cavalry under Morgan and Forrest, two Southern officers who specially distinguished themselves in such warfare. Bragg's invading army numbered fifty thousand. Buell's force against him was raised by detachments from Grant's army and other reinforcements to a hun-



REMOVING OBSTRUCTIONS FROM THE MISSISSIPPI.

dred thousand. Thus outnumbered, Bragg withdrew, after a single battle at Perryville, in which the loss on each side was about equal. But for the large supplies which he carried off, this invasion would have been a complete failure. The Federal Government, considering that Buell had not followed up his success as he might have done, transferred the command to Rosecrans. Bragg again advanced, and was met by Rosecrans at Murfreesboro. On December the 31st a fierce battle followed, in which the Federals were defeated. Bragg, nevertheless, retreated, and thus ended the Confederate attempt to carry the war into the enemy's territory in the west.

Meanwhile Lee had been carrying out a yet bolder policy, with better, though not with complete success. On September the 5th, 1862, he crossed

the Potomac. The conduct of his army contrasted favorably with that of Pope's. Nevertheless the Confederates were disappointed in the hope of support from the Marylanders. That had been one of the main objects of the invasion. But the sight of the ill-supplied, ill-clad, often unshod, soldiers from the South, was not encouraging. Lee's order for the campaign accidentally fell into McClellan's hands. Thus instructed, McClellan followed the line of Lee's march. Pressed as he was by superior numbers, Lee daringly detached twenty-five thousand men, under Jackson, to cross the Potomac and attack Harper's Ferry. The place was garrisoned by fourteen thousand men, of whom the cavalry, twenty-five hundred in number, cut their way out. The rest surrendered, and the place, with large stores, fell into the hands of the Confederates. Jackson at once hurried

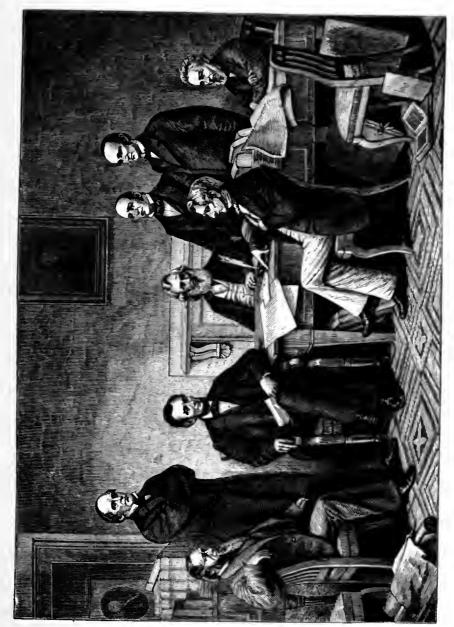


FREDERICKSBURG AFTER THE BATTLE.

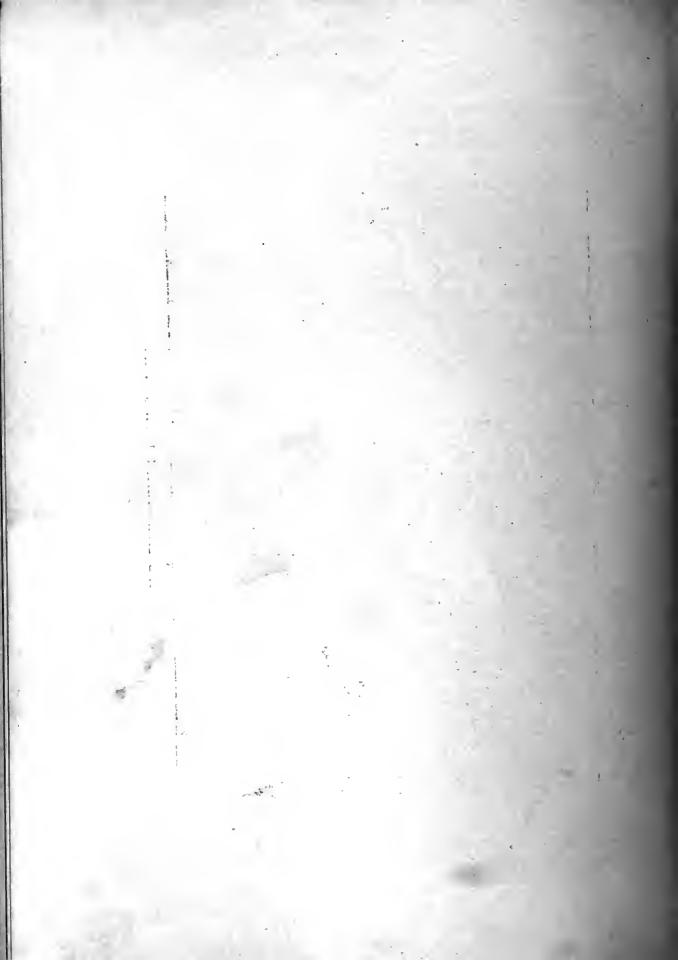
back and joined Lee, who had been brought to bay by his pursuers at Antietam. There a battle was fought with a loss of about thirteen thousand on each side. Lee then withdrew across the Potomac. McClellan might, it was thought, by a vigorous advance, have crushed the Confederate army before it could reach the river. But it must be said in his defence, that on his army rested the last hopes of the Federals in the east. and that defeat might have involved the capture of Wash-

ington. Soon after, however, McClellan was superseded by Burnside. He crossed the Potomac at Fredericsburg, on the Rappahannock. There he gave battle, but was defeated with a loss of nearly fourteen thousand men, against about five thousand on the Confederate side. After this defeat the Federals withdrew to the Potomac.

From the beginning of the war, a number of Acts had been passed by Congress with reference to the Southern slaves. As early as August, 1861, it had been enacted that all slaves used by the Confederates for military purposes, such as constructing batteries, intrenching, and the like, should be free. Another Act forbade the surrender of slaves who should take refuge within the Federal lines. Laws were also passed, carrying out two measures which the anti-slavery party had always advocated, namely, the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, and the prohibition of it



SIGNING THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.



ington from its defending force. Meade, like McClellan in the previous invasion, got information as to his enemy's doings from an intercepted letter sent by Davis to Lee. This told Meade that the South was utterly stripped of troops, that no reinforcements could be sent to Lee, and that Richmond was without defenders. He then posted his forces at Gettysburg, in a strong position, covering Washington and Baltimore. Lee attacked him on the 1st of July, and was defeated after three days' hard fighting, with the loss of more than thirty thousand men. The Federal loss was twenty-three thousand. Meade made no immediate attempt to follow up his victory, and the defeated Confederates retreated across the Potemac. Meade followed them, and the war was again transferred to Virginia. Lee now avoided an engagement, and Meade advanced to the Rappahannock.

Vicksburg was, as we have seen, the principal remaining stronghold of the Confederates on the Mississippi. It was garrisoned by a substantial force under General Pemberton. During the spring of 1863 repeated attempts were made upon Vicksburg by water, but without success. In May, Grant proceeded to surround the place. Johnston, who was in com-

mand of the Confederate armies in the south-west, tried to join Pemberton, but, before he could do so, Grant had thrown himself between the two armies. He then defeated Pemberton in two engagements, and drove him back into Vicksburg. Grant then assaulted the place three times, but in vain. Then, having brought up all the reinforcements he could to guard against an attack by Johnston, he invested Vicksburg. Pemberton



GRANT'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT VICKSBURG.

held out for nearly seven weeks, but no assistance reached him, and on the 3d of July he surrendered. Next day, on the anniversary of Independence and the day after the Federal victory of Gettysburg, Grant took possession of the place, which gave the North command of the Mississippi.

In June, 1863, the Federal army in Tennessee under Rosecrans advanced upon Chattanooga. This place was the key to the Southern States on their western frontier, and the capture of it would lay the South open to invasion. The Confederate army under Bragg had been weakened in order to reinforce Johnston, and was now reduced to forty-six thousand, fourteen thousand less than the Federal force. Bragg made but little attempt to check Rosecrans' advance or to hold Chattanooga. On September the 8th, the town

was abandoned, and the Federal army took possession of it. Bragg then rallied his troops at Lafayette. Fortunately for him, the Virginia army was able to spare him a detachment, and twelve thousand of Lee's best troops under Longstreet were hurried up to his assistance. Thus reinforced, Bragg gave battle at Chickamanga on September the 19th. The Federals were worsted, and their defeat would have been far more serious but for the firm-



RIFLE PITS.

ness with which General Thomas stood his ground. Longstreet would have followed up his success, and would perhaps have converted defeat into destruction. But Bragg restrained him, and the Federals withdrew into Chattanooga. Their loss was about sixteen thousand; that of the Confederates about twelve thousand. Bragg then stationed his forces on the heights above the town. In consequence of this defeat, Rosecrans was superseded, and Thomas was appointed in his stead. The position of his army, with its communica-

tions harassed and interrupted, became one of serious danger. The Federal Government, fully alive to the importance of holding Chattanooga, took active measures for its relief. Grant was appointed commander-in-chief in the west, and was sent to take charge of the defence of Chattanooga in per-

son, and twenty thousand men under Hooker were brought from Virginia. At the same time Sherman's force was hurried up from Iuka, two hundred miles off. On the other hand, Bragg had imprudently weakened his army by detaching Longstreet with fifteen thousand men to besiege Burnside in Knoxville, a hundred miles to the north-east of Chattanooga. In the battle which ensued Grant showed greater skill in combining the movements of large bodies of troops, and his subordinates showed greater power of carrying out such combinations harmoniously and



HAND-LITTER.

successfully than had yet been seen in the war except in the Southern armies under Lee. On the 24th of November, Sherman fought his way across the Tennessee river on the north of the town, and Hooker took possession of Look-out Mountain, a height to the south. Thus the whole Federal force was brought into line on the east side of the river. Bragg's army now lay opposite, on a line of heights called Missionary Ridge, a strong

position, but too extensive to be properly held by the diminished forces of the Confederates. The battle opened with a fierce attack by Sherman on the Confederate right. This compelled Bragg to weaken his centre. Grant then attacked with his main body, and after a hard struggle the Confederates were driven down the heights. The loss on each side was about five thousand. The victory of Chattanooga saved Knoxville. Sherman's troops, though wearied by the battle and their previous marches, were at once hurried off to relieve Burnside. Longstreet, on hearing of Bragg's defeat, made one desperate and unsuccessful assault on Knoxville, and then withdrew into Virginia.

It was seen early in the war that the voluntary enthusiasm of the South was unequal to the support of so great a struggle. In the summer of 1862 an Act was passed by the Southern Government, making all male citizens between eighteen and thirty-five years of age liable for military service, with a special exemption in favor of certain professions. As the war went on, fresh Acts were passed, extending the age, till at length no male between eighteen and fifty-three was exempt. The North, rich and able to offer liberal bourties, did not feel the need for compulsion so soon, but it came at last. In February, 1864, an Act was passed, making all male citizens

between eighteen and forty-five liable for military duty. Payment or provision of a substitute was allowed in place of personal service. These measures were differently received in the North and in the South. The Southerners were, as I have said, thoroughly united, and fired by an enthusiastic passion for their cause. Moreover, they felt that they were fighting to ward off invasion from their own homes. The population of



BALLOTING FOR CONSCRIPTS,

the North had not the same direct and personal interest in the war. Accordingly the ballot for conscripts at New York led to disturbances, which seemed at one time likely to endanger the city. Troops, however, were brought up, the municipality raised a fund to enable poor persons to pay for substitutes, and tranquillity was restored. It is remarkable, as showing how little sympathy New York had with the anti-slavery feeling of New England, that the negroes were made the special object of attack by the rioters.

All this while the blockade of the Southern ports was successfully maintained. By this means the staple commodity of the South, cotton, was

rendered worthless. At the same time, fort after fort was taken along the Southern coast. The only two affairs of this kind which were important



ADMIRAL FARRAGUT AT MOBILE,

enough to need separate notice were the capture of Mobile by the Federals and their unsuccessful attempt upon Charleston. The attack on Charleston was undertaken rather for political than for military reasons. The place

had always been the object of peculiar hatred in the North, as being the hotbed of secession. From a military point of view, any advantage that its capture might give was probably equalled by the fact that it kept thirty thousand men idle within its defences. On April 7th, 1863, the Federal fleet of iron-clads entered the harbor and opened fire upon the works, but were utterly unable to stand against the guns of the forts. After an engagement lasting forty minutes the fleet retreated, and their commander, Admiral Dupont, declared that in another half-hour every vessel would have been sunk. The Federal force then confined itself to detached attacks on Fort Wagner and Fort Sumter. The former was evacuated, the latter was bombarded till it was a heap of ruins. Nevertheless, the possession of it enabled the defenders of the place to impede the entrance of the harbor by the use of torpedoes and the like. Accordingly an attempt was made to dislodge them by an assault, but without success. Further south the Federals fared better. In the summer of 1864 Farragut attacked Mobile. The harbor was strongly fortified, and was a frequent resort for blockaderunners. With fourteen wooden ships and four iron-clads, Farragut forced his way in, destroyed the Confederate fleet in the harbor, and reduced the forts. Throughout the war the commerce of the Northern States was

greatly harassed by Confederate cruisers, some of them built in British dockyards. The most noteworthy of these was the *Alabama*, which was launched in July, 1862. During the next two years she captured sixty-five vessels, till she was at length destroyed by the Federal war-ship *Kearsarge*, near Cherbourg harbor.

In the spring of 1864 Grant was appointed commander-in-chief of the whole Federal forces, under the title of Lieutenant-General, a distinction never conferred by the Federal Government on any one since Washington. He undertook, and successfully carried out, a more



U. S. GRANT.

definite and continuous policy than had hitherto been attempted. Yet, in comparing him with those who had gone before him, we must not overlook several advantages which he enjoyed. The Southern Confederacy was fast becoming exhausted. Every campaign was draining it both of men and resources. The North, on the other hand, was becoming more united and more alive to the necessity of vigorous efforts. Grant too could learn by the failures of his predecessors, and he was at the head of armies whom those very failures had trained and disciplined. And, successful as Grant

was, it must never be forgotten that his success was won by a deliberate sacrifice of life on a fearful scale, a sacrifice from which perhaps his predecessors would have shrunk. Yet, with all these drawbacks, the clearness with which Grant saw what were the great leading movements needful for success, and the dogged courage and unwearied patience with which he strove for those ends, must ever give him a high place among great commanders. His policy was to abandon all minor movements, to concentrate the whole force of the Federal arms on two great lines of attack, and to penetrate the Southern States from the southwest and from the north. The superior resources of the North would, he κnew, enable him to wear down the South by sheer hard fighting. He would be able to bring fresh soldiers into the field when the Southern armies were annihilated and there were none to fill their place.

One part of this scheme, the invasion of the west, was entrusted to the ablest of Grant's subordinates, Sherman, to whose support, as Grant ever



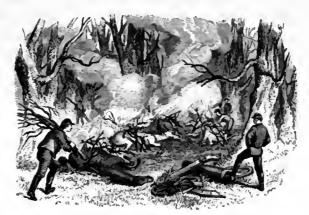
ARMY-HUTS.

frankly acknowledged, his earlier successes in the west were in a great measure due. Sherman's first point of attack was Atlanta in Georgia, an important centre of railway communication. It was about a hundred miles from Chattanooga, Sherman's point of departure. He set out early in May. His line of march lay along a railway which kept up

his communication with Chattanooga. His army numbered nearly a hundred thousand. The Confederate force opposed to him, under Johnston, was barely half that number. Johnston gradually fell back, impeding Sherman's advance and harassing him on every occasion, but avoiding a pitched battle. The march was, in Sherman's own language, "one gigantic skirmish." Johnston had never stood well with the Southern Government, and his present policy met with no favor. On the 17th of July the command of the Confederate army was transferred to Hood. Whatever may be thought of Johnston's policy, it was hardly a well-chosen time for such a change. All the mischief that might result from Johnston's caution had now been done. His previous career showed that his retreat was not the result of weakness or indecision, but part of a deliberately arranged plan. To make a change now was to suffer all the mischief of such a plan and to forego the compensating gain. Hood at once adopted a bolder policy, but with no good result. He was defeated with heavy loss in a series of en-

gagements round Atlanta. Sherman then marched to the west of Atlanta, and by threatening Hood's communication with the rear, forced him to evacuate the place. On the 2d of September Sherman telegraphed to Washington "Atlanta is ours." His total loss in the campaign which ended thus was about thirty thousand, that of the enemy some ten thousand more. Merciless severity in his dealings with the inhabitants of the South, when the operations of war seemed to need it, was Sherman's fixed and deliberate policy. He was not wantonly, or even revengefully, cruel; but he went on the principle that the South could be crushed only by bringing home to the inhabitants a full sense of the miseries of war, and that no feeling of pity for them ought to stand in the way of any arrangement which could bring the war to a speedy-end. In his own words, "war is cruelty, and you cannot refine it." In this spirit he ordered that all the inhabitants, without

regard for sex, age, or sickness, should quit Atlanta, and he destroyed the buildings of the town, sparing only churches and dwelling-houses. The capture of Atlanta was but a step towards further ends. To penetrate into the heart of the Southern Confederacy was Sherman's ultimate aim. With this view he quitted Atlanta, abandoning his communications with the rear, and determining to maintain his army, nearly sev-



BURNING HORSES FALLEN IN BATTLE.

enty thousand men, on the resources of the country and such supplies as he could carry with him. Hood, instead of opposing him, resolved to invade Tennessee; thus two invasions were going on simultaneously. The object of Sherman's march was the city of Savannah. On the 14th of November he started, and from that time till he arrived at the sea no clear tidings of his army reached the North. On the 20th of December a division of the army appeared before Fort McAlister, some fourteen miles from Savannah. The Federals had made more than one unsuccessful attack on this place from the sea, but it now fell at the first assault. General Hardee, who was in command of the Confederate forces at Savannah, found that it would be impossible to hold the place, and evacuated it. Sherman sent a message to the President announcing that he presented him, as a Christmas gift, with the city of Savannah. He had marched more than three hundred miles in thirty-six days, with a loss of little more than five hundred men. His own report stated that he had done

damage to the amount of a hundred millions of dollars, of which eighty millions was sheer waste and destruction. The march of an invading army, subsisting on the country, must always be accompanied by great suffering to the inhabitants, and little was done by Sherman or his officers to lessen it. The absence of an enemy relaxed discipline, and the army became little better than a horde of savage plunderers. The negroes rushed in troops to the army and followed their march, hailing them as deliverers; but, as might be supposed, they could find no means of support, and perished in numbers from misery and hunger.

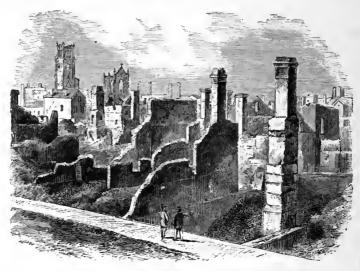
Widely different in its result from Sherman's invasion had been Hood's sortie into Tennessee. The army opposed to his was commanded by Thomas, and was stationed at Nashville. A detachment was sent forward under General Schofield to harass Hood and check his advance. Having done this successfully, Schofield fell back and joined the main body. On December the 15th the two armies engaged in front of Nashville, and after two days' fighting the Confederates fled in confusion, hotly pursued. Their sufferings in

the retreat were intensified by all the horrors of mid-winter.

In the meantime Grant had been himself endeavoring to carry out the other half of his scheme in Virginia. His object was twofold: firstly, to destroy or cripple Lee's army; secondly, to capture Richmond. Accordingly he began by a direct advance on Richmond, intending if that failed to proceed against it on the south-east side, as McClellan had done two years before. The Federal army advanced in three bodies. The main body marched through the country in which the battle of Chancellorsville had been fought. The right wing, under Sigel, marched up the Shenandoah valley; the left, under Butler, near the coast between the Rappahannock and the James river. The country through which the main body marched was called the Wilderness. It consisted of tobacco-fields, thrown out of cultivation, covered with low, scrubby wood, and cut across by deep ravines. Most of the fighting throughout the war had been carried on in woody and broken country. This gave the battles a peculiar character. No one, in reading an account of the war, can fail to notice that the great battles often took several days, almost always more than one. From the nature of the ground, it was usually impossible for the general to carry out movements with great masses of troops, such as in the great battles of Europe have often decided the matter almost at a single blow. Moreover, in a country where a foe could always approach unseen, troops were liable to be taken suddenly in flank. This led to the general use of roughly and hastilyconstructed defences. Thus a great battle was often a series of petty sieges, the troops defending themselves in one post after another by felling trees and hastily throwing up earthworks. All these peculiarities were seen in the highest degree in the battles of the Wilderness. The centre of the

Federal army, under Meade, numbered one hundred and forty thousand. Against this Lee could only bring sixty thousand men. Outnumbered as he was, Lee at first acted on the offensive. In the first engagement he lost ten thousand men, the Federals double that number. After this, Lee contented himself with holding his ground against the attacks of the Federals. Again and again did Grant hurl his forces upon Lee's line, and each time he was forced by a flank movement to turn the position which he had failed to carry. After a month of this continuous carnage, Grant found himself on the south-east side of Richmond, with the Confederate line still unbroken, and his own force lessened by sixty thousand men. His position was one which McClellan had reached with comparatively triffing loss. All that he had to compensate him was the enemy's loss of eighteen thousand men, a loss in reality more serious than his own, since they could not be replaced. The South, too, had lost the services of Stuart and Longstreet. The former had fallen in some detached cavalry operations to the north-east of the main army. Longstreet, by a strange chance, had nearly met the same fate as He and his staff, as they rode along in front of his line, were mistaken for Federal eavalry. The men fired, and Longstreet fell, seriously, though not, as was at first thought, mortally wounded. In the meantime Butler's force had been checked by Beauregard. That general had formed the daring scheme of withdrawing fifteen thousand men from Lee's army, falling with his force thus strengthened on Butler, and then, if successful, attacking Grant's left flank. Jefferson Davis, however, refused to sanction this scheme, fearing that it would endanger Lee's army.

The operations in the Shenandoah valley are important enough to need a separate notice. Early in May, Sigel was utterly routed by Breckinridge. Sigel resigned his command and was succeeded by Hunter. He obtained some trifling success, but was afterward out-manœuvred and forced to retreat into Western Virginia. Lee then, in hopes of creating a diversion, detached Early with twelve thousand men to threaten Washington. Hunter threw himself across Early's line of march, and, although defeated, created a hindrance and gave time for the defence of Washington. When the rumor came thither that Early had crossed the Potomac, the inhabitants at first mocked at all idea of danger. Extravagant terror soon took the place of over-confidence, and it was reported that Lee with sixty thousand men was marching on the capital. The danger was undoubtedly real, but troops arrived in time to make an attack impossible. Early, who had advanced within a few miles of Washington, withdrew across the Potomac. In his march through Maryland he ravaged the country mercilessly, giving the inhabitants their first insight into the actual horrors of war. In the beginning of August, Grant sent Sheridan, one of the ablest of his subordinates, with forty-five thousand men to act against Early. For some weeks nothing was done beyond skirmishing. On September the 19th, Sheridan attacked Early at Opiquan Creek and defeated him, with a loss of about five thousand men on each side. Sheridan then, obeying Grant's orders, utterly laid waste the valley. The alleged defence for this was the necessity of making it impossible for a Southern army to advance by that route against Washington. On the 18th of October Early surprised the Federal army at Cedar Creek. His attack was at first completely successful, but his forces became scattered and demoralized in pursuit, and betook themselves to plundering the enemy's camp and feasting. Sheridan rallied his troops, fell upon Early, and utterly defeated him, capturing all his stores and a large portion of his artillery. The actual loss of men was about equal, but the Confederates.



RUINS OF CHARLESTON.

were driven out of the Shenandoah valley. Thus ended the last attempt of the South to carry the war into the North.

In the autumn of 1864 the Presidential election took place. It seemed at first as if the parties would again be subdivided. A section of the Republicans were inclined to think that Lincoln would not show enough vigor in his dealings with the South. These still distrusted his views about slavery. They proposed to bring forward General Fremout, a man of great energy and high personal character. Early in the war he had held command in the west, and had incurred the displeasure of the Federal Government by his summary and, as it was thought, unconstitutional dealings with slavery. The Democrats, too, were divided into War Democrats and Peace Democrats. The representative of the former was General McClellan. The latter supported Governor Seymour of New York. The main difference between the two parties was, that the War Democrats, although opposed to abolition

and in favor of State rights, refused to listen to anything like recognition of Southern independence. At last the extreme wing of each party withdrew, and the contest lay between Lincoln and McClellan. The latter labored under many disadvantages. His military career, though respectable, had not been brilliant, and was now utterly eclipsed by Grant's successes. The time too was a bad one for putting forward the established doctrine of the Democrats, that of State rights. Moreover, as Lincoln himself put it in a homely way, it was not well to change horses while crossing a stream. These considerations were strong enough to enlist on the Republican side all those who were led rather by the special circumstances of the time, than by any fixed preference for either party, and Lincoln was re-elected by an enormous majority.

During the winter of 1864 the cause of the South became more and more hopeless. Lee's forces were gradually lessened by desertions and sickness, while he was straitened for supplies, both by mismanagement and by scarcity. In the meantime, Sherman was rapidly approaching from the South. At the end of January he left Savannah and advanced through South Carolina. Columbia, the political capital of that State, was evacuated, and Hampton, the Southern commander, in his anxiety to destroy the stores of cotton there, lest they should fall into the hands of the Federals, burnt down a large part of the city. A like fate befell Charleston. By the last week in March, Sherman had brought his army to the southern frontier of Virginia. Lee, it was clear, would, if he remained before Richmond, be

crushed between the two Federal armies. His only hope was to join Johnston, who commanded the Confederate forces in South Carolina. On the 25th of March a Confederate force under General Gordon attacked the Federal lines, in the hope of cutting a way through for the escape of the army. At the outset the attempt was successful, and Fort Steadman, a strong work on the Federal right, was seized. The Federals, however, rallied, repulsed their assailants, and recaptured the fort. On the 29th of March Grant resolved to strike a decisive blow. Sheridan, by a daring and skilful attack,



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

utterly defeated the Confederate right. This was immediately followed by an attack on the whole. The Confederate lines were forced, and the defence of Richmond became impossible. On Sunday, April 2, the news of Lee's defeat was brought to Jefferson Davis while he was in church. In a few hours the whole city was seized by a panic. As in Columbia and Charles-

ton, the attempt to destroy the public property was followed by a fire, by which half of the town was destroyed. On the 3d of April the Federal flag floated over the Southern capital. Petersburgh was evacuated on the same

day.

The retreat of Lee and the fall of Richmond practically ended the war. The South might prolong the struggle, but all hopes of success were at an end. Yet men remembered how, after Antietam and Gettysburg, Lee's retreating army had turned upon its pursuers, and it yet seemed possible that some signal triumph might win for the South better terms than she could expect by an immediate surrender. But Lee's wearied, starving, disheartened forces were no longer the same men who had conquered at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. Through mismanagement, his supplies went astray, and after the 5th of April his army had no food but such as it could glean from an exhausted country in the face of an ever-watchful enemy. The men were glad to feed on the shoots of trees, and the mules fell down in the road from weakness. Whole bodies of soldiers laid down their arms and surrendered, till Lee was left with little more than ten thousand men. By April the 9th, the energy of Sheridan had barred the path of Lee's retreating force. Once more Gordon tried to cut a way through, but in vain, and then Lee sent in a flag of truce. Grant allowed liberal terms of surrender. The Southern soldiers were to become prisoners on parole, and were to return to their homes and stay there unmolested as long as they refrained from bearing arms. Men and officers alike were to retain those horses that had been their private property, a condition of no small importance to the Southern farmers. Grant and his officers left nothing undone which could lessen the bitterness of defeat, or relieve the sufferings of the Confederate troops. Lee's parting with his soldiers showed that he had won from them a love and confidence which no defeat or misfortune could lessen. Warworn men, with tears running down their cheeks, pressed round him to say farewell, and all personal distress seemed swallowed up in sympathy for their commander, Johnston's army soon shared the fate of Lee's. On the 18th of April, Sherman and Johnston met to settle the terms of surrender. Sherman, going far beyond his province as a general, granted, not merely the personal safety of the Southern army, but the restoration of political rights to the South. The Federal Government refused to confirm these terms. Johnston then offered to surrender on the same conditions that had been granted to Lee, and this was accepted.

The few remaining Confederate forces soon yielded, and the war was at an end. Jefferson Davis, after his flight from Richmond, sought to establish the Confederate seat of government at Danville in North Carolina. The surrender of the Confederate armies obliged him to flee. After many adventures and hardships he reached Georgia, but was there taken prisoner. In

the meantime an event had occurred in the North which threatened to embitter greatly the feelings of the conquerors. On the 14th of April, Lincoln was assassinated in the theatre at Washington. His murderer was an actor, named John Wilkes Booth, a fanatical partisan of the Southern cause and of slavery. He was at the head of a conspiracy for murdering the President, the Vice-President, the members of the cabinet, and General Grant. The assassination of Lincoln was the only part of the plot which succeeded. One of the conspirators, Powell, broke into the house of Mr. Seward, the Secretary of State, who was confined in his room by an accident, and wounded both him and his son severely, but not mortally, Booth was pursued and shot down, Powell and three accomplices were hanged, and four others were imprisoned. No Confederate in any high station or official

position was in anywise implicated in this atrocious and purposeless crime. Lincoln was succeeded by the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, a native of South Carolina, who had emigrated when young to Tennessee, and had warmly taken up the cause of the North.

Johnson's term of office and that of his successor, General Grant, have been taken up with the process of reconstructing the Union. During the autumn of 1865 several of the Southern States annulled their ordinances of secession, and abolished slavery within their own limits. A test oath was framed by Congress to be taken by all its members. They



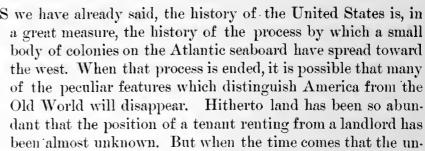
DAVIS' PRISON, FORTRESS MONROE.

were to swear that they had never voluntarily borne arms against, or renounced their allegiance to, the United States Government. This, as long as it remained in force, excluded all who had taken any active part on behalf of the South, though it might be doubted how far it applied to those who had only yielded compulsory military service. In January, 1866, a committee of Congress was appointed to consider the question of reconstruction. From that time the old struggle between North and South may be looked on as having taken a new form, and American history as having entered on a new epoch.



## CHAPTER XXVI,

GENERAL VIEW OF THE COUNTRY AFTER THE WAR.



occupied districts in the west have all been taken into cultivation, land may perhaps come to have the same value which it has in the Old World. So, too, men may be driven by want of land into manufactures. Hitherto, men in the United States have always had before them the possibility of bettering themselves by a change of abode. Moreover, the great demand for labor has given them a free choice of occupation, and thus led to rapid changes. When the power of extension towards the west is at an end, all this will change, and we may reasonably suppose that the United States will become far more like the great nations of Europe.

The most remarkable feature in the history of Western America is the discovery of gold in California in 1848, and its immediate results. was the rush of immigrants that in eighteen months one hundred thousand people had gone to California. All were intent on the one object of golddigging. Labor could not be procured; the necessaries of life commanded fabulous prices; gold alone was plentiful and cheap. Wages, it is said, were at first as high as fifty dollars (ten pounds) a day, and the rent of a small cellar twelve feet by six was two hundred and fifty dollars a month. city of San Francisco sprang up as if by magic; upwards of twenty houses a day were built on an average. As might be supposed, a mob of adventurous gold-hunters from all nations formed but poor material for a settled population. In 1850 California became a State, without passing through the intermediate stage of being a Territory. But the authorities were utterly unequal to the task of preserving law and order, and San Francisco seemed likely to become a mere den of criminals. A private body was formed, consisting of the most respectable citizens, and called the Vigilance Committee. This body took the law into its own hands, and succeeded by

summary measures in establishing order. In 1856 things again became so bad that the citizens were driven to like measures.

The main commerce of America has lain, as must always be the case with an imperfectly settled country, in the exportation of raw produce, corn, rice, cotton, and tobacco. But, though the cost of labor has hitherto prevented America from competing successfully in manufactures with the Old World, in one way it has quickened her manufacturing skill. In the art of substituting machinery for human labor the Americans have far surpassed the people of Europe. The greater part of the inventions for saving labor in farming, or in the every-day tasks of life, by the use of machinery, come from the United States. We may reasonably expect that the skill thus



SAN FRANCISCO.

learned will enable the Americans, when their market for labor shall be better stocked, to equal, or even to surpass, the manufactures of Europe.

We have already seen how various nations of the Old World have contributed to make up the population of the United States. This will always have an important influence on their social and political condition. The Southern States have been, comparatively speaking, free from this influence. Where slavery exists, there is little temptation for free laborers to immigrate, and thus the white population of the South is mainly descended from the original English settlers. But in the North the population is largely made up of blood other than English. There have always been many Germans in Pennsylvania and New York, and the population of the latter State has been recruited by a continuous inpouring of Irish. This, coupled with the constant emigration westward, gives a peculiar character to the great cities of the Eastern States. Men look on them rather as mere places of business than as fixed and lasting abodes.

This familiarity with sudden and rapid changes, may have had something to do with the origin of various religious sects, holding strange doctrines, and living in peculiar fashions. Two of these sects are important enough to deserve separate notice. These are the Shakers and the Mormons. The sect of Shakers was founded about 1780, by Anne Lee, the daughter of a Lancashire blacksmith. There are now about three



MINING IN CALIFORNIA,

There are now about three thousand five hundred of them in the United States, living in fifty-eight separate communities. These communities are not altogether unlike the religious houses of the Middle Ages. Their inhabitants are unmarried, and live with great temperance and good order, altogether shut off from the world. Almost all kinds of diversion and enjoyment are forbidden to the Shakers, and their time is spent in religious exercises and farming. In the latter pursuit they have been

remarkably successful. The whole brotherhood owns as much as a hundred thousand acres of land, and the Shakers are reputed the best farmers in The sect of Mormons was founded about 1830, by Joseph Smith, the son of a farmer in Vermont. He professed to have discovered a book called the Book of Mormon, revealing a new religion, and telling the history of the American continent before its discovery by Europeans. The book was really an ill-written imitation of the Bible, and those parts which professed to be historical were taken from an unpublished novel, written some years before by one Spaulding. Smith also professed to have direct communication with God, and to receive from Him instructions as to the conduct of his disciples. The first State in which he preached his doctrines was Missouri. There his disciples met with much persecution, and were hunted from one place to another. Mobs attacked them in defiance of law, and Smith was taken prisoner, and narrowly escaped death. In 1838 the Mormons fled to Illinois. There they built a town called Nauvoo, and became a prosperous community. Disciples flocked to them. from various parts of Europe, and before ten years Nauvoo contained more than ten thousand Mormon inhabitants. This prosperity, however, turned their heads, and they soon brought persecution upon themselves. In 1843 Smith professed to have received a revelation permitting the Mormons to

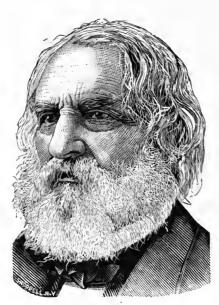
marry as many wives as they pleased. In the same year he announced himself as a candidate for the Presidency of the United States. Next year the office of a newspaper which had attacked Smith and his followers was seized by a Mormon mob, and the printing-press destroyed. This was the signal for a sort of civil war between the Mormons and their neighbors. Smith was taken prisoner, dragged out of jail by a lawless mob, and shot without trial. He was succeeded by Brigham Young, a carpenter by trade,



SHAKERS' DANCE.

and, like Smith, a native of Vermont. The troubles of the Mormons soon became so great that they resolved to leave Illinois, and to seek a refuge beyond the Rocky Mountains. After great hardships they settled in an uninhabited spot, by a lake called the Great Salt Lake, within the borders of Mexico. Soon after they found that the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo had given this territory to the United States Government. However, in 1850, the country which they had occupied was formed into a Territory under the name of Utah, and Brigham Young was appointed Governor. The industry of the Mormons soon converted an unpromising and seemingly barren district into a fertile one, and they became a rich and prosperous community. Young's arbitrary rule, and the way in which he and his followers have set the Government at defiance, have more than once brought the Mormons into conflict with the Federal authorities, and it seems likely that serious troubles may yet arise. There are many other sects in the United States, whose doctrines and manner of life are even stranger than those of the Shakers or Mormons, but none of sufficient importance to deserve separate notice.

We have seen that the northern colonies were, from the first, distinguished by the wide spread of knowledge among all classes. The United States have in that respect kept up the same character, and in that way contrast favorably with most European countries. Schooling is cheap and abundant. Books, magazines, and newspapers are placed within the reach of all by public libraries in the large towns. In the department of history America has produced remarkable writers. Prescott's histories of the Conquests of Mexico and Peru, and Motley's histories of the Rise of the Dutch



LONGFELLOW.

Republic and of the United Netherlands, rank among the best historical works of the age. Moreover, there are many works on the history of States, districts, or towns in America, compiled with considerable care and learning. In fiction America has produced less that is valuable or distinctive. Two novelists, however, Cooper and Hawthorne, deserve special notice. Cooper, in default of a picturesque historical past, has fallen back on the Red Indians as a subject for fiction. As Sir Walter Scott in the Waverley Novels invested the wild highlanders and the border yeomen with a romantic interest, hitherto unfelt in them, so Cooper has thrown a gleam of romance over the savage life and strange customs of the American Indians. Hawthorne too may be looked upon as repre-

senting an interesting side of American feeling. The same craving for spiritual excitement, which has led to the formation of so many strange sects, shows itself in Hawthorne's novels and tales, where the romantic interest is furnished by partly supernatural incidents, while the substance of the story generally deals with the every-day country life of New England. Of many other notable writers (too many to note in a work like this), Washington Irving and the poet Longfellow deserve particular mention, the latter being probably as well known and appreciated abroad as at home.

# APPENDIX.



### CHAPTER I.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SOUTH.

the provisions of the Constitution, Andrew Johnson of Tennessee became, upon the death of Mr. Lincoln, President of the United States. On the 15th of April he took the oath of office and was inaugurated as President. The public mind was greatly excited, and a feeling of insecurity prevailed. The first act demanded by the country was the arrest and punishment of all concerned in the murder of Lincoln and its attendant crimes. It was a general belief that the whole affair had been plotted by the Confederate leaders, and, under this

impression, President Johnson issued a proclamation offering rewards for Jefferson Davis, Jacob Thompson, and others supposed to have been instigators of the crime. As minds grew calm, however, it became clear that it was the work of a few desperate men.

Booth fled through Maryland, but was pursued and at last closely followed

by a body of eavalry. He, with one of his accomplices, took refuge in a barn, and was summoned to surrender: as he refused, he was shot down by one of the soldiers and died soon after. Harrold, the companion of his flight, Payne, the assailant of Mr. Seward, and some others, including Mrs. Surratt, the woman at whose house Booth boarded, were arrested. The government did not deem it safe to allow these persons to be tried by a judge and jury. With doubtful legality, a military court was constituted, before which the accused were tried; four of them were sentenced to death and hanged, including Mrs.



WM. H. SEWARD.

Surratt, although the evidence against her might, perhaps, not have found

weight before any civil tribunal. The whole course of government was a dangerous precedent, and was regretted when the excitement of the moment

had passed.

Though the war had virtually ended with the surrender of Lee and the fall of the Confederate government, some of the Southern armies still were in the field. On the 14th of April, the very day when Mr. Lincoln fell by the hand of Booth, General Johnston seeing the hopelessness of the struggle, sent to General Sherman to propose a suspension of hostilities. Terms were agreed upon; but at Washington, Sherman was regarded as having gone too far, and on the 26th Johnston surrendered on the same terms that had been accorded to General Lee. The Confederate General Taylor surrendered to General Canby with all the forces in the department of Alabama, Mississippi, and Eastern Louisiana, on the 4th of May; and on the 20th, General Kirby Smith surrendered beyond the Mississippi. The war on land was thus ended; but at sea the Confederate flag floated for some months, the Confederate cruiser the Shenandoah continuing to evade the United States vessels and destroy merchantmen till the 6th of November, when she ran into Liverpool, and surrendered to the English authorities.

After the surrender of the armies of Lee, Johnston, and others, the Southern soldiers straggled off to their ruined homes and wasted country; the volunteers in the armies of the United States were rapidly discharged, and the regular army reduced. In a few months, more than a million of men

thus returned to their usual avocations.

The war had ruined the South. Its trade, manufactures, and industries were ruined; the destruction of property by the war and by the lawless ravages of the army followers had been immense. The planters, ruined as they were, could cultivate their plantations only by hiring their former slaves. Worst of all, they did not know their future condition, or what rights their conquerors would grant them. The North, which had lost heavily in men and means by the war, seemed to feel it less, as from the great issue of paper money prices had advanced, and a seeming prosperity prevailed; but the industry of the country was crippled by a debt of nearly three thousand millions of dollars.

The great question before the government was to determine on a course to be pursued with the States that had seceded. It seemed impossible to recognize the actual State governments and allow Senators and Representatives of the South to be elected and take their places at once in Congress. The Constitution gave no powers or directions for solving the difficulty. Mr. Lincoln had advocated a lenient policy, and his popularity gave him such a strong hold, that he would have been able to carry it out to some extent, at least. Booth, in his mad folly, did the greatest possible harm to the very States he wished to serve. President Lincoln had, by a proclamation,

December 8, 1863, recognized governments as reorganized in the States of Louisiana and Tennessee; but while Congress did not venture to annul his acts, it declined to receive Senators or Representatives from those States. President Johnson had not, however, the support of the country which his predecessor enjoyed, and his administration of the executive office and policy involved him in great difficulties, made the Presidential power a mere shadow, and drew on the South a more rigorous and sterner policy. On the 29th of May, 1865, the President issued a proclamation granting pardon to all who had taken part in the recent rebellion, excepting certain specified classes, on condition of their taking an oath of allegiance to the United States. He recognized as loyal the governments of Virginia and Arkansas, and ap-



THE NATIONAL CAPITOL,

pointed provisional governors of the other seceded States, with power to call conventions and establish permanent governments loyally subordinate to the United States. They were required to repeal the Act of Secession, repudiate any debt incurred in support of the Confederate government, and to ratify an amendment for the abolition of slavery which had passed both Houses of Congress, and been submitted to the States for their ratification. The provisional governors appointed by President Johnson called conventions, at which the proposed amendment was ratified and new State constitutions adopted.

When Congress assembled on the 4th of December, 1865, it was evident that it would not recognize the system of reconstruction adopted by the President. Conceiving his terms to be too liberal, a majority of Congress resolved to impose on the seceded States most rigorous conditions. Acts were introduced for establishing new governments in the Sonthern States.

which were divided into five military districts and placed under the control of generals who were to call a constitutional convention in each State. These military commanders were authorized to allow civil tribunals to take jurisdiction of and try offenders, or to organize military commissions for that purpose. No one was to be allowed to vote for a member of this convention, or to vote under the new constitution, unless he took an oath that he had taken no part in the recent civil war against the United States. This provision virtually excluded nearly every white citizen in the Southern States, and gave the control to the emancipated slaves and a few whites, most of whom entered those States after the war.

The President vetoed the series of reconstruction acts passed by Congress, but they were all passed over his veto by a majority of two-thirds, and became laws. The President and Congress differed completely in their ideas, and the power of the President in legislation became for the time annulled. The question of the constitutionality of the Reconstruction Acts came before the Supreme Court of the United States in 1869, in the case of Texas against White, when that Court sustained them, and held that during the Rebellion the seceding States had no governments competent to represent them in their relations with the National Government.

The first of the Southern States which was organized under the Congressional Reconstruction Acts was Tennessee, which was readmitted into the Union by Congress on the 23d of July, 1866.

While the United States were distracted by civil war, France, with whom England and Spain at first acted in concert, sent armies into Mexico to enforce claims against that republic. Meeting but slight and ineffectual resistance, the French army under Marshal Bazaine reached the city of Mexico, and the national government was overthrown. A convention of notables under French influence declared in favor of a monarchy, and invited the Austrian Archduke Maximilian to become Emperor of Mexico. He accepted the crown, and proceeded to Mexico, where he attempted to organize the government. The establishment of a monarchy in North America on the ruins of a republic could not be regarded with indifference by the people of the United States. One of the earliest acts of Johnson's administration was a protest to the French government against the continuance of their armiés in Mexico. Early in 1866 the government of the Emperor Napoleon assured the United States that they should be promptly withdrawn. The power manifested by the United States government in reducing the seceded States had increased its influence abroad, and secured greater respect from foreign powers. In time the French withdrew from Mexico, and the unfortunate Maximilian, too high-spirited to retire from his dangerous position, attempted to maintain it, was defeated and betrayed into the hands of the republican party, and summarily shot with some of his generals at Querétaro.

The Republican government, with Juarez as President, was again restored at the capital.

The influence of the military power manifested by the United States was seen also on the northern frontier. Previous to the Civil War, England had maintained in Canada an army of some thirty thousand men, and a system of fortifications deemed adequate to protect that colony from invasion, and it had, indeed, been boasted that in case of war, the English army would easily march to Washington. After the close of the Civil War in America it became manifest that, even for the defence of Canada, the force was useless: the troops were soon withdrawn, and the fortifications abandoned. The absence of troops in Canada emboldened a revolutionary organization among the Irish in Ireland and the United States to form a project of invading that province with a military force raised in the United States. Many officers and soldiers who had seen service in the recent Civil War joined the Fenian Brotherhood, as the association was called, and men and arms were collected near the frontier in New York and Vermont. The government of the United States took steps to prevent this illegal course, but a small body of Fenians crossed at Niagara, and a slight skirmish occurred at Ridgewood. The whole movement was soon suppressed.

In the month of July, 1866, a telegraphic cable was successfully laid between England and the United States, which proved permanent, the cable laid in 1862 having failed to work almost immediately, from some unexplained cause. This new channel of information by means of the telegraphic system throughout the United States and Europe enabled news of every important event to be transmitted instantly from any part of either continent to the great centres of the other. A morning paper, instead of giving news brought by sailing vessels or steamers, always at least ten days, and often several weeks after the event, now tells the citizens of New York, San Francisco, or New Orleans, what happened the day before in London or Paris, Berlin, Rome, or Constantinople, as regularly as it does the news of the city where the journal itself is issued.

The Civil War in America, from the fertility of resource displayed on both sides, had led to a host of experiments which eventually greatly modified the whole system of war on land and water. The importance of railroads in transporting men and war material, made future campaigns depend on the control of railroad lines, and rendered great railroad centres objects of strategic importance. The employment of heavy siege artillery or naval guns, made stone forts of comparatively little service in protecting harbors. On ships, the old system of cannon on each side of the vessel to pour broadsides into a fort or hostile vessel gave place to a few cannon of immense size in revolving iron turrets; and to resist the new projectiles introduced, ships were sheathed with heavy plates of iron. As one country increased the

armor and strength of vessels, another introduced heavier and more effective cannon. The system of torpedoes, originated in America by Bushnell and Fulton, became an object of study, and by employing electricity to ignite them, these instruments for the destruction of shipping were rendered very effective as a means of harbor defence.

In the sessions of Congress in 1866 and 1867, many acts were passed which President Johnson deemed unwise, and which he returned without his signature, giving his reasons. In all cases these were passed over his veto, so that for the time the legislative power conferred on the President by the Constitution was much curtailed. The Houses of Congress then went further, and, in vesting in the General of the Army a power independent of the President, and at a subsequent period in preventing the President from dismissing any member of his cabinet, they assumed much of the former power of the Executive. In this they were sustained by the majority in the States which were then permitted by Congress to be represented in its halls. Congress was thus supreme, the position was a critical one, and fraught with great danger; but the Providence which had so wisely guided the destinies of America saved it from the perils which menaced its existence.

Bent on carrying out its own plans, the Republican majority in Congress would brook no opposition. As early as January, 1867, Mr. Ashley of Ohio moved the impeachment of the President for high crimes and misdemeanors; and though this was not pushed at the time, Congress in March passed the Tenure of Office Bill by which the President of the United States was deprived of a power which he had always hitherto exercised, that of dismissing any member of his cabinet. Under this law the President was forbidden to remove any member of his cabinet without the consent of the Senate, and it was enacted that those officers should hold office for and during the term of the President by whom they have been appointed, and for one month thereafter, subject to removal by and with the consent of the Senate. This bill President Johnson vetoed as a palpable infringement of his constitutional rights as Executive, he being responsible for the acts of his cabinet, which were regarded as his executive acts. But the bill was passed over his veto.

Bills had been passed for the admission of Colorado and Nebraska as States, but had been vetoed. In 1867 similar bills were passed which the President thought fit also to veto; but a bill for the admission of Nebraska, with a condition requiring impartial suffrage and the adoption of the pending amendments to the Constitution was passed March 1, 1867, and Nebraska took its place among the States of the Union.

The United States, which, as established by the triumphant issue of the Revolutionary War, reached only to the Mississippi on the west, and the

St. Mary's on the south, had, by the purchase of Florida and Louisiana, extended its limits over all the territory of North America between the forty-ninth degree and the frontiers of Mexico; and then, by the annexation of Texas and the resulting Mexican War, had acquired a large part of the neighboring republic. It was now to acquire a part of North America not immediately contiguous. Russia had long possessed the northwest extremity of the continent, but desired to withdraw. When it was proposed that the United States should purchase this province, to which the name Alaska was given, the project found many warm advocates. The territory consisted of



ST. NICHOLAS INLET, ALASKA.

nearly six hundred thousand square miles, had several good harbors, its fisheries were abundant, and the trade in furs was very lucrative. Its metallic resources were not explored, but were supposed to be valuable. It was purchased of Russia in October, 1867, for seven million two hundred thousand dollars. As it did not meet the anticipations formed, no regular territorial government was established, and for the next fifteen years it declined, losing much of the prosperity it had enjoyed under Russian rule.

In August, President Johnson, finding that Mr. Stanton, the Secretary of War, was not in harmony with his views, asked him to resign. This Mr. Stanton declined to do. The President thereupon suspended him (August 12), regarding the Tenure of Office Act as inapplicable to his case, as Mr. Stanton

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had not been appointed by him. General Ulysses S. Grant was then appointed Secretary of War. This was followed by the removal of General Sheridan and General Sickles from the departments under their control. When Congress assembled, President Johnson in a message notified the two Houses of his action, and the causes that led to it; but on the 13th of January, the Senate reinstated Mr. Stanton. This was followed by a new act for reorganizing the Southern States, by which almost absolute power was given to the General-in-Chief, and the President was deprived of much power over the army. Congress thus curtailed the power of the executive. The President resolved not to submit, and on the 21st of February, 1868, removed Mr. Stanton from the office of Secretary of War, and appointed General Thomas, Secretary ad interim, and communicated the fact to the Senate.

The struggle had now come to a decisive point. The President insisted that if he was President of the United States, Mr. Stanton should not be Secretary of War; Congress resolved that if Mr. Stanton was not retained. Mr. Johnson should cease to be President of the United States. The somewhat complicated system of government was now to be put to a strain that had never been anticipated. Congress had been manifestly diminishing executive powers; it had evinced the greatest hostility to the President, deprived him of powers exercised freely by every other Chief Magistrate, and now one House was to be his accuser, and the other his judge. On the 22d of February, 1868, by a strictly party vote, one hundred and twenty-six to forty-seven, the House of Representatives resolved that Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, should be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors. Articles of impeachment were then drawn up, and managers appointed to conduct the prosecution before the Senate, sitting as a Court. The Constitution of the United States provides: "The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present."

Under the Constitution a person impeached could, if convicted, be removed from office and disqualified to enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States.

The country was now to witness for the first time in its history, a Chief Magistrate, elected by the votes of the people, placed on trial for high crimes and misdemeanors. The Senate was organized as a Court on the 5th of March, 1868, Salmon P. Chase, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, presiding. After the usual delays for presenting the Articles of Impeachment, and awaiting the President's answer, the trial began on Monday, March 30th. The prosecution was conducted chiefly by Benjamin F. Butler of Massachusetts, the defence by Henry Stanbery of Ohio, with whom were

associated William M. Evarts of New York, W. S. Groesbeck of Ohio, B. R. Curtis of Massachusetts, and T. A. R. Nelson of Tennessee. The President was not personally present. A question arose whether the President of the Senate, who would become Acting President of the United



EDWIN M. STANTON.

States on the removal of President Johnson, could sit as his judge, and also whether the Chief Justice had the right to pass on the admissibility of evidence. The managers introduced testimony to sustain the Articles of Impeachment, and the President's counsel in support of his answer; but they were not allowed to show that in cabinet meetings it had been agreed to take a step that would obtain from the Supreme Court of the United

States a decision as to the constitutionality of the Tenure of Office Act. The Senate sat in judgment on its power to decide on the constitutionality of its own acts.

After elaborate arguments the Senate proceeded to vote. The first vote was on the eleventh article, charging the President with denying the constitutionality of the Thirty-ninth Congress. Thirty-five members, all republicans, voted for conviction; nineteen, embracing all the democratic members and a few republicans, for acquittal. As the number for conviction was not two-thirds of the whole body, the President was acquitted on that charge. A vote was then taken on the second and third articles, charging him with unlawfully appointing General Thomas Secretary of War ad interim. On this the same vote was given. The Court then adjourned, without at all voting on the first and principal article, that which charged him with unlawfully removing Mr. Stanton.

The acquittal of the President on these few charges brought against him was virtually a decision in favor of his right to remove Mr. Stanton. That officer, in consequence, resigned the position which he had held in defiance of the President, and Mr. Johnson appointed John M. Schofield of Missouri,

Secretary of War.

The twenty-eighth day of July, 1868, is a remarkable day in American history. On that day Congress, by a joint resolution, declared that the Fourteenth Amendment, the acceptance of which by the Southern States had been made compulsory, had been ratified by the requisite number of States, and was part of the Constitution of the United States. It made all persons born or naturalized in the United States, citizens, and prohibited any State from abridging their privileges or immunities; and where the right of suffrage was denied in any State to any portion of the citizens, its number of representatives in Congress was to be reduced in proportion. It excluded from Congress, and from all civil and military office under the United States, all persons who had been engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or who had given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof, until the disability was removed by a two-thirds vote of Congress. It established the validity of the debt of the United States, and prohibited the States from assuming any debt incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States. This amendment had been ratified by Arkansas, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina, and those States had been readmitted to the Union on the 24th of June. As the military rule had been established over the South, the General-in-Chief on the day that Congress declared the amendment part of the Constitution, issued a proclamation declaring the reconstruction act, so far as it vested the government of the South in the military power, no longer in force.

A treaty negotiated with China, through Mr. Burlingame, was this year

ratified by the Senate, by which mutual privileges of trade, travel, education and religion were secured to citizens of either country within the limits of the other. In subsequent years, owing to the great influx of Chinese emigration into California, and the opposition excited against them, the provisions of this treaty became an object of much censure and complaint. Under it, heathen temples were established in many States, and communities

grew up governed by the rules, customs, and usages of China.

By this time much had been done to terminate the war with the Sioux Indians, which began in the year 1862 with a terrible massacre. The Indian department had long been sadly mismanaged, treaties were made with the tribes which were not carried out, Indians were removed from place to place without regard to their wishes or necessities, and they were practically at the mercy of dishonest but all-powerful Indian agents. Several bands of the large and powerful nation of Sioux had been suffering under grievances, and in the summer of 1862 some of the Upper Sioux, nearly starving, broke into a government warehouse, and obtained food. Fearing punishment, they resolved to massacre the whites, and for three days bands of Sioux went from settlement to settlement in Minnesota killing and plundering. Nearly a thousand men, women, and children were butchered, and property destroyed to the amount of millions of dollars. A tract two hundred miles by fifty was abandoned, the survivors forsaking their homes and seeking refuge in towns and forts. Troops were sent to chastise the Indians, many prisoners were recovered, and hundreds of Sioux were taken and tried by military commission. Three hundred were sentenced to death, but only thirtynine were executed. The rest of the Minnesota Sioux were removed to a tract of land in Dakota. Their dissatisfaction with this place induced other After great loss, and a cost of forty millions of bands to assume hostilities. dollars, treaties were made with the Sioux, the hostile bands fled across the Canadian border, the peaceable were removed to Nebraska.

As the time for a Presidential election approached, the Republicans, in a convention held at Chicago in May, nominated as their candidate for President, General Ulysses S. Grant, and for Vice-President, Schuyler Colfax, then Speaker of the House of Representatives. The Democratic party, in a convention held in New York in July, nominated Horatio Seymour of New York for the Presidency, and Francis P. Blair of Missouri for Vice-President. Thirty-four States took part in the election, Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas being still disfranchised. The re-admitted Southern States were under negro rule and Republican, few whites being allowed to vote. Grant received 3,021,020 votes, and Seymour 2,716,475; but in the electoral college Grant had 214 votes and Seymour only 80. Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler

Colfax were accordingly elected.

Subsequent to the election another amendment to the Constitution of the

United States passed both Houses of Congress, and was submitted to the people of the States. By it the right of suffrage is secured to all citizens of the United States, without regard to race, color, or previous condition of servitude: but a State could still require a property qualification in naturalized citizens.

To maintain the credit of the United States, and to relieve the fears of those who believed that the bonds issued by government during the war might be paid off in depreciated paper money, an act was passed pledging the faith of the United States for their payment in coin, or its equivalent.

Soon after the close of the war, the United States government demanded of Great Britain compensation for the vessels and cargoes which had been destroyed by the Confederate cruisers fitted out in English ports, and equipped and manned mainly by British subjects. Reverdy Johnson, Minister to Great Britain, negotiated a treaty with that power in June, 1868; but when it was submitted to the Senate, it was rejected. These claims were thus left for subsequent adjustment. As the greatest part of the destruction was caused by the Alabama, under the command of Commodore Semmes, these claims were generally called the Alabama Claims.





NORTH FRONT OF THE WHITE HOUSE.

#### CHAPTER II.

GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION.

HE election of General Grant gave the country a President who was in full accord with the dominant party in Congress,—a man accustomed to military rule, who had never held any civil office, and therefore disposed to be determined. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1869. Ulysses S. Grant was born in Clermont County, Ohio, April 27, 1822, was educated at West Point, and entering the army, served through the Mexican war, and rose to the rank of captain. He subsequently left the army, and became associated with his father

in the tannery business. During the Civil War he rose from Colonel of the Twenty-first Illinois Volunteers to be General-in-Chief. The reputation he had acquired by his brilliant campaigns in the West and East, made him extremely popular.

By the Tenure of Office Act the cabinet retained their places for ten days after the inauguration, but President Grant at once appointed a cabinet consisting of Hamilton Fish of New York, Secretary of State; George S. Boutwell, Secretary of the Treasury; John A. Rawlins, Secretary of War; Adolph E. Borie, Secretary of the Navy; Jacob D. Cox, Secretary of the Interior; John A. J. Creswell, Postmaster General; E. Rockwood Hoar, Attorney General. The Senate confirmed them on the 5th.

President Grant in his first message urged the desirability of a speedy restoration of the Southern States to their proper relations to the United

States government, and on the 10th of April an Act was passed authorizing the people of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas to vote on the constitutions prepared by the State conventions, elect members of Congress and State officers, but requiring them before re-admission to ratify the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. It was not, however, till early in the following year that these States were actually admitted.

The restoration of the Southern States gave the citizens power once more to manage their own local affairs. The negroes, with persons recently come from the North, and popularly known as "carpet-baggers," were Republicans; the mass of the white population was Democratic. The negro vote in several States was very heavy, and the whites, especially in South Carolina, saw ignorant negroes or mere adventurers filling the legislative halls, and occupying the most important positions in the State. Extravagance and corruption followed, taxes increased with rapidity, and deep and bitter feelings were aroused. Secret organizations were formed to overawe and terrify the negroes; to suppress these, Congress passed a series of Acts. The corruption prevalent among the white Republican adventurers who traded on the ignorance of the negroes, enabled the native Democrats gradually to recover the control of public affairs, and schemes of all kinds were adopted to reduce the negro vote.

Doubts had been raised as to the constitutionality of the paper money issued during the war, and commonly called "greenbacks." By a decision of the Supreme Court in December, 1869, the law under which the paper money was authorized was declared to be unconstitutional. Congress immediately increased the number of justices, and availing themselves of a vacancy, the Republican President and Congress appointed two new justices who were known to be of a contrary opinion. By the Court thus formed, the previous decision was reversed in March, 1870.

The eastern or Spanish portion of the island of Hayti after being for years under negro rule, regained freedom, and became the Dominican Republic. It was for a time under Spanish authority, but did not prosper. The people looked to annexation to the United States as their only hope. General Grant entered warmly into the project, and in September, 1869, a treaty was negotiated between him and the President of the Dominican Republic. In 1870 President Grant recommended the annexation in a message in which he set forth the military advantages. Commissioners were sent to that Republic who reported favorably, but the subject was abandoned. Somewhat later a project was started the object of which was to acquire Samana Bay, a port in Santo Domingo, for a coaling station.

The failure of the treaty negotiated in the time of President Johnson, left many questions to be adjusted with Great Britain. The most irritating of these was the question of indemnity to the United States for the ravages

on her commerce caused by the Confederate cruisers. These vessels were fitted out from English ports, and they not only destroyed many American vessels, but made the sea so unsafe that American ship-owners sold their vessels at great loss to avoid their capture, and the United States, from possessing one of the largest mercantile navies in the world, sank very low. This caused a deep-seated feeling against England. In the Eastern States there was another ground of complaint, because American fishing-vessels were prevented by the governments of the British colonies from taking fish where they had a treaty right; and in the northwest there was a dispute as to the boundary channel near Vancouver's Island. To adjust all these, a Joint High Commission of fourteen British and American diplomatists met at Washington in February, 1871. This resulted in the Treaty of Washington, concluded May 8th, by which the Alabama elaims were submitted to arbitrators, one chosen by each country, and three others named by Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. This board met at Geneva, in Switzerland, and awarded to the United States the sum of fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars in gold. The treaty of Washington also adjusted the Fishery questions, though not in a manner to be permanently satisfactory. It secured the free navigation of the St. Lawrence and other rivers to American vessels, and submitted the question regarding the north-west boundary to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the channel claimed by the United States, and gave that republic the island of San Juan.

On the 22d of May, 1872, a bill was passed removing all legal and political disabilities imposed on citizens of the seconded States, excepting only those who had been members of Congress, judges, foreign ministers, or officers in the army or navy. The pardon was subsequently extended to all persons except Jefferson Davis.

Georgia, the most powerful of all the Southern States, steadily resisted the reconstruction measures, and passed laws which Congress insisted on her repealing. It was not till July 15th, 1870, that she finally yielded to the will of the Northern States, and adopted the laws they imposed upon her. The States were again united in fact, as well as in name, yet it was not till the 23d of May, 1872, that all the States in the Union were represented in Congress, or permitted to take part in making the laws and guiding the destinies of a great nation.

Even after this happy event, Congress continued to pass laws aimed at the South. The Force Bill was intended to enforce rigidly the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment, which had been frequently evaded in many Southern States. It allowed the President to suspend the writ of habeas corpus, and to employ the military and naval forces to suppress conspiracies to take away any one's rights as a citizen, and declared such conspiracies rebellion against the government of the United States. This

Act excited opposition not only from the Democrats, but also from moderate Republicans, many of whom considered the dominant policy no longer

patriotic or just.

While many Republicans adhered to the former policy, and were willing to go to any lengths to maintain their supremacy, there was a growing feeling in the party that severity had been carried far enough. This led to distinct action in Missouri by the Liberal Republicans, who united with the Demo-



INDIANS' FIRST VIEW OF THE PACIFIC RAILROAD.

crats of that State in removing the disabilities imposed on all who had sympathized with the South. This led to the organization of the Liberal Republicans as a party in many parts of the country; Horace Greeley, editor of the "New York Tribune," lending all the support of that paper to its cause.

A great public work had for some years been in progress—a railroad which was to connect the Eastern States with California. The road was extended from the East and from the West, and the road was completed in 1869, at a point near Great Salt Lake. This road received vast grants of

the public land from Congress, and was built by a corporation known as the "Credit Mobilier." A charge was made that the Credit Mobilier had bribed members of Congress by gifts of stock. This led to investigation, and though distinct bribery was not proved, the affair weakened the confidence of the people in many members of both Houses.

In Louisiana fraud and corruption prevailed to such a degree that in 1875 there were two Returning Boards, and by their decisions two Governors and two Legislatures claimed power in the State. This was finally adjusted by a Committee of Congress, but the same result took place in 1876. In all these troubles lives were lost, the commanding generals interfered, legislatures were invaded. There was a growing sense in the community that Federal interference had been carried far enough, and might prove prejudicial to the whole nation.

The country was recovering from the effects of the Civil War which had laid waste so many Southern cities, when the North experienced several terrible visitations. The first of these was the Chicago fire, which broke out in the rich and thriving commercial capital of Illinois on the 8th of October, 1871. All efforts to check the spread of the flames proved unavailing; the fire swept like a torrent through the city, destroying all in its path, till twenty-five thousand public and private buildings were consumed, leaving five square miles of the area of the city a smouldering mass of embers. Two hundred lives were lost; ninety-eight thousand five hundred persons were suddenly deprived of home and all worldly means, and the loss of property amounted to one hundred and ninety-six millions of dollars. The utmost distress prevailed, but the charity of America and Europe sent prompt succor, and in a short time the people were energetically rebuilding their ruined city, Almost at the same time a fire swept through the wooded regions of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, consuming in its course whole villages, and leaving those who lived by forest industry homeless and destitute. So sudden was the spread of the fire and so rapid, that nearly two thousand lives were lost. In November of the ensuing year, 1872, Boston, the capital of Massachusetts, was similarly chastened. A fire broke out in the centre of the business part of the city, where buildings were solid and substantial, and a rapidly spreading fire unexpected. But buildings reared by man proved of no avail against the surging flames. Seventy-five acres were laid waste in the very centre of the business activity of Boston, and the losses of property were estimated at more than seventy millions of dollars.

The feeling throughout the country against any further severity to the South, and the disorders arising in Louisiana, with revelations of great corruption in many departments, even in the President's cabinet, the Secretary of the Interior, Belknap, resigning and undergoing impeachment—all this

led many Republicans to join the Liberal movement, and favor a lenient

policy.

In the convention called by this new party and held at Cincinnati in May, Horace Greeley of New York, Editor of the New York Tribune, and one of the founders of the Republican party, was nominated for President, and B. Gratz Brown of Missouri for Vice-President. The regular Repub-



HORACE GREELEY.

licans met at Philadelphia in June, and here Ulysses S. Grant was renominated for the Presidency, with Henry Wilson of Massachusetts for Vice-President. The Democratic party was discouraged by the result of previous elections, and many thought the best policy would be to strengthen the hands of the Liberal Republicans. When their convention assembled at Baltimore in June, it was proposed to adopt the ticket of the Liberal Republicans, and to call on their party to vote for Greeley and Brown, rather than

set up a ticket of their own. This project was vigorously opposed, but was finally adopted. A portion of the Democratic party, dissatisfied with this determination, called a convention, which met at Louisville, and nominated Charles O'Conor of New York for President, and John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts for Vice-President. The election showed that the Liberal Republicans had failed to influence any considerable portion of the party. Grant and Wilson received two hundred and eighty-six votes, while Greeley and Brown received but sixty-six, two States in the South, Louisiana and Arkansas, being deprived of a vote. Mr. Greeley did not live to witness the official action of the electoral college.

The study of the changes of temperature and the condition of the barometer at various points led to a more extended knowledge of atmospheric variations, from which the laws regulating the changes became clearer. The approach of storms from the point of their origin was thus more accurately estimated. This study was begun in England, and after much opposition, the government created a department for carrying it out effectively, establishing a central office which was connected with observation-stations in all parts of the kingdom. The result was most encouraging: warned by the daily reports from this bureau, vessels were detained till storms were over, and the number of wrecks was greatly diminished. In the first term of General Grant a Signal Bureau was established under the War Department, and by means of telegraphic communication with all parts of our immense country, constant record is kept of every change at any point. Daily bulletins are issued, notifying the public of imminent changes, of storms occurring in any part, and the direction they assume. This bureau owed its efficiency in no small degree to the efficiency and skill of the first Chief Signal Officer, General Albert J. Myer, to whom the special duty of observing and giving notice by telegraph of approaching storms was confided by an Act of Congress passed in February, 1870. In direct communication with this is the Life Saving Service, which has stations on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and on the Northern Lakes. These stations are provided with life-boats and the most perfected systems for sending lines to vessels in distress, so as to enable those on board to save their lives and property.

An embassy of twenty-one persons, embracing several of the heads of departments of the Japanese government, reached the United States in 1872, to renew the former treaties, and acquire a better knowledge of the relations of the two countries, and the means of developing advantageous intercourse between them. By their influence numbers of young men of rank in Japan came to the United States to prosecute their studies in our best universities and scientific schools, and educational establishments under American direction were opened in Japan. This gave that country in a few years many intelligent and educated men, fully informed as to this country and our peo-

ple, and able to render service to the Japanese government in all international questions.



VESSEL IN DISTRESS.

By an Act passed in 1871, the President of the United States was authorized to prescribe rules and regulations for admission into the civil

service as will best promote the efficiency thereof, and ascertain the fitness of each candidate for the branch of service into which he seeks to enter. Under this, a commission was appointed to draft rules; but the law has not proved an adequate remedy for the evil sought to be corrected. Many offices are filled with incompetent and unfit men, who obtain them as rewards for services at elections, rendered to the leaders in their respective political partis. The object of the Act was to secure competent men, and to make promotion a reward for honest and efficient discharge of official duties. The subject has been revived from time to time, but the system of giving offices after an election as rewards for services is too deeply rooted in American politics to be easily set aside.

After the inauguration of General Grant as President, and Henry Wilson as Vice-President, the Senate confirmed the members of the new cabinet: Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State; William W. Belknap, Secretary of War;

William A. Riehardson, Secretary of the Treasury; George M. Robeson, Secretary of the Navy; Columbus Delano, Secretary of the Interior; John A. J. Creswell, Postmaster-General; George H. Williams, Attorney-General.

Soon after the commencement of President Grant's second term the country was involved in hostilities with the Modocs. They were a tribe who had resided for many years near the boundary between California and Oregon. An Act was passed for removing them to the Klamath reservation. This, the majority of the Modocs



GENERAL CANBY.

refused to do, preferring to die rather than to leave the home of their ancestors. Troops were sent to reduce them, and, overpowered by numbers, the Modocs agreed to meet peace commissioners by appointment. When they came together, the Indians treacherously fired upon the whites, killing General Canby and Rev. Dr. Thomas, one of the commissioners. The war was renewed, and the Modocs, taking refuge in the most inaccessible portion of a broken country known as the Lava Beds, defied pursuit. They were, however, persistently hunted down, and the whole party captured on the 1st of June, 1873. The leader of the hostile Modocs, known as Captain Jack, with two others implicated in the assassination, were tried, found guilty, and executed at Fort Klamath in October. The rest of the hostile Modocs were transported to Indian Territory,

A civil war had been raging for several years in Cuba, the people of that island having, in 1868, attempted to put an end to the authority of Spain in

America. A republican government was adopted, and the revolutionists had successfully held their ground against the large and well-commanded Spanish armies sent against them; but they had not succeeded in liberating the island, or in capturing any of the large cities. None of the great powers had recognized them as belligerents, and the government of the United States prohibited the shipment of arms and war material to them. Occasionally, however, a vessel would elude the vigilance of the authorities, and, clearing for some other port, would run in at the Cuban coast, where it would land men and arms. Spanish cruisers were constantly hovering around the shores of the island to prevent the insurgents from receiving relief in this way. In 1873, an American vessel, named the Virginius, while on the high sea, and not within Spanish waters, was pursued by the Spanish war-steamer Tornado, overtaken near the island of Jamaica, and carried into Santiago de Cuba. The American flag was hauled down and trampled upon; the captain, crew, and passengers were taken on shore, committed to prison, and immediately tried by court-martial. Their claim to be American citizens was disregarded, and no regard was paid to the protest of the American consul. With the most indecent haste, and allowing no time for appeal, the captain and several of the passengers, citizens of the United States, were The entrance into the harbor of a British man-of-war compelled respect to the American flag, and saved the lives of the rest of the persons captured on the Virginius. When the tidings of this massacre reached the United States, the indignation was universal. President Grant at once demanded reparation, and the Spanish government disavowed the act of the commander at Santiago de Cuba. The Virginius was restored in December, and eighty thousand dollars paid as indemnity to the families of the men so unjustly executed. While the Virginius was on her way to New York, in charge of a vessel of the United States navy, she sprung a leak and went to the bottom, near the coast of North Carolina.

During the war, the currency of the country was almost entirely the depreciated paper money issued by government, of which at one time two hundred and eighty dollars were required to equal one hundred dollars in gold. The prices of property and of all goods in paper money rose excessively, and all transactions were carried on upon a fictitious basis. Sound policy required the resumption of specie payments at the earliest possible moment; but it was almost impossible to effect this without creating a financial panic. This was precipitated in the autumn of 1873 by the failure of Jay Cooke & Co., who had been extensive bankers and operators in government and railroad bonds. A general panic ensued, unparalleled in the history of the country. Heavy failures occurred in banking, mercantile, and manufacturing circles; trade was crippled, and a general stagnation followed. Real estate declined in value, and by the foreclosure of mortgages,

many saw all the savings of years swept away, and those who had laid up their money in savings-banks and life insurance companies were in many cases deprived of everything. Many cities and towns which had rashly undertaken improvements and issued bonds, became hopelessly involved, from the impossibility of raising money by taxation.

The unwise system forced on Louisiana by the Acts of Reconstruction continued to produce disastrous results. In an election for governor, McEnery and Kellogg both claimed to have been elected, and each proceeded to appoint officers. In many districts the two parties took up arms, and reports of murders and massacres were sent to the North by Republican officers. McEnery, who had the support of the white population, called out the militia, but President Grant espoused Kellogg's cause; he sent General Sheridan to Louisiana, and on the 13th of January, 1874, sent a special message to Congress advocating Kellogg's claim, and detailing the lawless doings of his opponents. Early in March, both Houses, by a strict party vote, recognized the Kellogg government, and, by what was called the Wheeler Compromise, a committee of the House of Representatives decided who were entitled to seats in the Legislature of the State of Louisiana. In pursuance of its decision, five members were removed from the Hall of a State Legislature by United States troops. The whole system was radically wrong, and the evil was only aggravated by Federal interference.

Under the administration of President Grant, a new system of managing Indian affairs was inaugurated; the selection of agents was given to some of the religious denominations, and the Society of Friends obtained a widespread control. The result proved disastrous. Fraud and oppression increased, and two Indian wars arose out of the troubles caused. The Nez Percés, who had always been a friendly tribe, lived in peace in the Wallowa Valley in Oregon, till an agent came. In time they were required to give up their lands and accept a temporary reservation, of which they could be dispossessed by the stroke of a pen. One band, known as Joseph's band, refused to join in the treaty, accept annuities, or leave their old homes. Their right was recognized, and President Grant in 1873 refused to interfere with them; but in 1875 troops were sent to expel them. A chief was arrested in a council held with them by General Howard, and the Indians under Chief Joseph yielded to force. While surrounded by soldiers, and on the march with their families and cattle they were attacked by white men. Then they began a warfare which lasted two months. Chief Joseph, though followed by General Howard, with General Crook on his right, and General Miles with another force in front, baffled them all, and surrendered at Bear Paw Mountain only to save his wounded and suffering. The terms of his surrender were shamefully violated, and the whole band transported to Indian

Territory. A more serious trouble arose with the Sioux Indians, who occupied the Black Hills in Dakota and Wyoming Territories. The land had been assured to them as a reservation, but gold was discovered there, and the attempts of miners to enter and of government surveyors to lay off the lands roused a hostile feeling, and the Sioux prepared for war. Government resolved to crush them at once. Early in 1876 a strong military force was sent into the Yellowstone country. It consisted of three columns under Generals Terry, Crooke, and Gibbon. Crooke met the Sioux under Sitting Bull on June 15th, but finding them too strong in numbers and arms, was compelled to retreat; General Custer with Terry's column formed a junction with Gibbon, and marched to the Big Horn river, taking the advance.



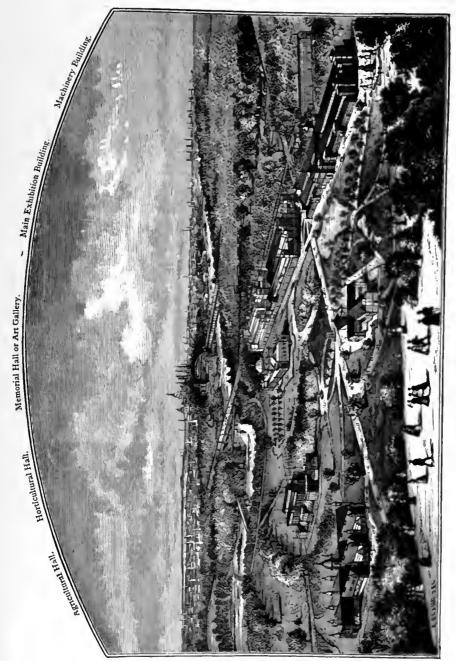
SITTING BULL.

Here he discovered a large Indian camp, and without waiting for Gibbon to come up prepared to attack them. He detached General Reno with several companies of cavalry to attack the camp on one side, while he led the main assault. One of the most sanguinary and disastrous engagements ensued. In this battle of the Little Horn, June 25th, Custer, an officer of great experience and bravery, was killed, with almost every man of his command. Reno, assailed in turn, reached a defensive position, and saved most of his detachment; but Sitting Bull, after his victory, though pursued, baffled the troops, and retreated into British territory, where this band of Sioux remained peaceably for about five years.

Death was invading the highest circles of offices in our government. In a period of twenty years two Presidents were assassin-

ated, and one Vice-President died. On the 22d of November, 1875, Vice-President Wilson, an earnest advocate of the abolition of slavery, died, and his decease, with that of Seward in 1872, Chase in 1873, and Sumner in the following year, removed from the Republican party several of its prominent leaders.

Americans all looked forward with pride to the year 1876, which would complete the first century of the existence of the United States as a republic. To celebrate so gratifying an event, it was resolved to open in the city of Philadelphia, where Congress signed the Declaration of Independence, an "International Exhibition of Arts, Manufactures, and products of the Soil and Mines." Congress passed an Act empowering the President to appoint



VIEW OF CENTENNIAL BUILDINGS.



a Commission from each State and Territory. The whole affair was organized with great judgment, and five elegant buildings were erected in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, at a cost of nearly five millions of dollars: they comprised a main exhibition building, a machinery hall, an agricultural hall, and a horticultural hall, constructed mainly of glass and iron, so as to unite



FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA.

light and strength. The fifth building, which was intended to be permanent, was erected of marble, and this was the Art Gallery. Foreign nations were invited to contribute their products, manufactures, and works of art. Thirty-six nations accepted the invitation, and to each, space was assigned in the buildings. Nothing had yet been seen in America to approach in interest and value this collection of the fruits of the world's industry, art, and talent. Here were seen in contrast the manufactures of all lands, enabling

men to compare and judge of the superiority in every branch, and affording to our own industrial workers opportunities for studying and imitating everything in which we could improve. The Exhibition was formally opened by the President of the United States on the 10th of May, 1876, in presence of the Emperor and Empress of Brazil, and the ambassadors of most nations in amity with the United States. The railroads of the country made arrangements to facilitate visitors in reaching Philadelphia, and the attendance rose to about ninety thousand a day.

On the 4th of July, 1876, Colorado was, after the usual stipulations, and on its adopting a constitution acceptable to Congress, and recognizing the Constitution of the United States as amended, admitted into the Union as the thirty-eighth State. The great mineral wealth of Colorado, and its advantages as a grazing State, seemed to promise a rapid increase of population. It was not, at the time, such as to demand its admission, or to entitle it to a representative, but it was, rather, a political move, in order to give one more Republican State, and, in fact, its three votes gave Hayes his majority of one over Tilden.

Far less gratifying to the country was the impeachment of a member of the President's cabinet, William W. Belknap, who, involved in corrupt practices, had resigned his high position of trust and honor, and was then arraigned before the Senate, on charges presented by the House of Representatives. Thirty-seven out of sixty members declared him guilty, but as this was not two-thirds of the body, he was acquitted.

This year was marked by great political feelings evoked by the approach of the time for another Presidential election. The differences in the Republican party had widened. The administration of President Grant had disappointed the country, which had expected much from a man who had displayed such remarkable military ability. But corruption and extravagance had prevailed, and the South, after a lapse of more than ten years. since the close of the war, was still far from a condition of prosperity; with political institutions unsettled, subject to military interference, and with citizens embittered against each other. The friends of General Grant, however, strongly pressed his claims to a renomination, asking that he should be elected for a third term. As no previous President had ever sought this, the feeling of the country was decidedly against it. In the Republican Convention the leading candidates were, on the withdrawal of Grant, James G. Blaine of Maine, and Roscoe Conkling of New York. Their strength was too evenly balanced to allow the nomination of either, and the choice fell on Rutherford B. Hayes, Governor of Ohio, who became the Republican nominee for the Presidential chair, with William A. Wheeler of New York, as candidate for Vice-President. The Democratic Convention which met at St. Louis at. the close of June, nominated Samuel J. Tilden of New York for President,

and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana, for Vice-President. A new party, favoring the issue by government of paper money to pay off the debt, and facilitate trade, and hence called Greenbackers, nominated Peter Cooper, of New York, and Samuel F. Cary of Ohio. The election showed an immense increase of strength in the Democratic party. Tilden carried all the Southern States by admitted majorities, except South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, which were claimed by both. Hayes carried all the Northern States, except Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Indiana. South Carolina, after an investigation of the returns by a committee, was conceded to Hayes; in Florida, all turned on one county, in which each party claimed a majority. In Louisiana the Returning Board excluded Democratic members, but Governor McEnery gave the Democratic Electors a certificate. To add to the difficulties of the situation, the United States Senate was Republican, and the House of Representatives Democratic, and the two Houses could not agree to a revision of the joint rule regulating the count. The Republicans claimed that the power to open and announce the returns was in the hands of a single man, the President of the Senate; while the Democrats claimed that the joint body could control the count. Fearing that Tilden would seek to be inaugurated by force, General Grant prepared to use the military power, and concerted with Governor Hartranft of Pennsylvania to use the militia of that State and a political organization, "The Grand Army of the Republic." Secretary Cameron summoned General Sherman, and preparations were made to prevent Tilden's obtaining the Presidency. After conferences between the leading men of the two parties, an Electoral Commission Act was passed by Congress, January 29, 1877, by which the decision of all questions as to returns from any State were to be decided by a commission consisting of five members from each house, and five associate justices of the Supreme Court of the United States. This commission of fifteen, when organized, consisted of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, and acted on strict party principles. By a vote of eight to seven, an irregular return was accepted from Louisiana, and every disputed vote was assigned to Hayes, who was declared duly elected President of the United States by a majority of one vote.

The State of Maryland demanded the passage of an Act to submit the whole case to the Supreme Court; but Congress decided that the Forty-fourth Congress having counted the vote, there was no power in any subsequent Congress to reverse its declaration that Hayes and Wheeler were elected.

#### CHAPTER III.

#### CONCILIATION AND PROGRESS.

assuming the Presidency, Hayes selected for his cabinet, William M. Evarts of New York, as Secretary of State; John Sherman of Ohio, as Secretary of the Treasury; George W. McCrary of Iowa, as Secretary of War; Richard W. Thompson of Indiana, as Secretary of the Navy; Carl Schurz of Missouri, Secretary of the Interior; David M. Key of Tennessee, Postmaster-General, and Charles Devins of Massachusetts, Attorney-General. His policy at first was marked by a disposition to conciliate the Southern States, and he removed

one cause of animosity against the North and of local trouble by withdrawing the troops which the late administration had used so frequently and uselessly. The State government in Louisiana, claimed by the Republicans, when deprived of military support, at once succumbed; and Hayes recognized that claimed by the Democrats. This aroused a strong feeling against

him among one section of the Republicans, led by Senators Conkling, Cameron, and Logan. He recoiled, therefore, from going further, and condemning the use of the troops and of posses under United States marshals at elections.

The gradual contraction which preceded the resumption of specie payments was not without some serious results. Wages were lowered, and thousands were thrown out of employment. In Maryland, the firemen and brakemen on freight trains began a strike against a proposed reduction of wages; the movement spread to Pennsylvania and other States, and soon became general. The strikers refused to work, or to permit others to run the trains, so that travel and transportation through-



WM. M. EVARTS.

out a large extent of country were virtually arrested. Riots ensued, and the military forces were called out to protect property and restore order.

At Pittsburgh the mob resisted the militia, and destroyed railroad stations, locomotives, trains of cars, and merchandise to the amount of six millions of dollars, and many lives were lost before the violence of the mob was suppressed. Rioting occurred at several other points from Reading and Scranton in the East to Chicago and St. Louis in the West. It was not till the expiration of three weeks that State and National troops succeeded in com-

pletely restoring peace and order.

Although Mr. Hayes had shown his desire to avoid, if possible, the employment of military in the South, there was, on the part of many, a demand for a definite legal enactment taking from the Executive the power to employ the army during elections. When Congress met at the close of the year 1877, the Democrats, for the first time since 1861, were powerful enough to modify the legislation of the country. The use of the military, and the arbitrary arrest of electors by United States marshals at the polls were, in their eyes, a grievance that required distinct and positive condemnation by law. The session ended without any appropriation being made for the maintenance of the army at all. As this left the army subject to be disbanded, President Hayes called an extra session of Congress in October; but nothing was effected, and when the regular session began in December, he called attention to organizations in the South for overawing the negroes, and again urged the passage of the usual appropriation bills. It was not, however, till June that a judicial expenses bill passed, but as it contained clauses forbidding the use of the money to pay deputy marshals at elections, it was vetoed by the President.

A similar course was adopted in the following year, the Democrats holding a majority, passing bills which the President vetoed, but which they were unable to pass again over his veto, inasmuch as they had not the two-thirds required by the Constitution. Their conduct was far from politic, and they were compelled ultimately to recede from the position they had taken, and pass such bills as the President could approve. The result was that the Republicans throughout the country were aroused, the popularity of Mr. Hayes increased among them, and the more radical portion of the party gained new strength. The attempt to pass a bill directly revoking that passed during the war, under which the army could be employed to insure the freedom of elections, was also defeated by a Presidential veto.

This unwise agitation enabled designing men to excite widespread alarm through the negroes in the South, and in 1879 there was a general movement in the Carolinas and in the States on the Mississippi, thousands of negroes of all ages starting for the North, especially for the States of Kansas and Indiana. They came in such numbers, and frequently in such want, that measures had to be taken for their relief and gradual scattering to parts where they might be enabled to earn their livelihood. Investigation failed

to trace the movement to its source, and if it was initiated with the view of swelling the party vote in some Northern States, it proved futile. A similar movement of negroes from South Carolina to Arkansas occurred subsequently, but in both cases the South learned that the negro labor was essential to its

prosperity, and could not easily be replaced.

After the great financial panic the condition of the country steadily improved, and on the first day of January, 1879, payment in specie was resumed by the government and by the banks throughout the country. Then, for the first time in nearly eighteen years, a gold dollar and a dollar in paper were of equal value. This desirable result was attained without any of the disastrous consequences which had been foretold by some, and which had been the great argument of the Greenback or Paper Money Party.

In 1879 an outbreak occurred among the Ute Indians, due in no small degree to the unwise exercise by an Indian agent of the arbitrary powers vested in him by law and custom. The Utes rose on Meeker, then agent, killed him, and subjected his family to great cruelty and hardship. A detachment of United States troops under Major Thornburgh, sent to repress the Indians, was attacked, the commander and ten of his men slain, and the rest so closely hemmed in, that they had great difficulty in holding out till relief was sent. The tribe was soon reduced to submission.

Many countries have by war and mismanagement accumulated vast national debts, but that of the United States seemed unparalleled, and it was supposed would remain for years, perhaps centuries, a heavy burden on the country. The result was, however, most gratifying. Although economy and wisdom had not always guided the management of public affairs, the debt was steadily reduced from two thousand eight hundred millions of dollars, to which it had swollen on the 1st of January, 1866, to two thousand millions on the 1st of January 1881, no less than eight hundred millions of dollars having been paid off in fifteen years. This rapid liquidation of the debt raised the national credit, so that government was enabled to refund much of the outstanding debt at a lower rate of interest, the United States bonds finding ready sale though bearing only four, or four and a half per cent interest. One of Hayes' last acts was to veto a bill for funding the debt at three per cent, the President deeming some parts of the bill dangerous.

During the years 1878 and 1879 the yellow fever created great ravages in the lower part of the Mississippi valley, especially in New Orleans, Vicksburg, and Memphis. All intercourse with the infected places was suspended, many of the inhabitants fled, business ceased, and the greatest distress prevailed among the poor. Camps were formed outside the cities in healthy spots, where many took refuge; physicians and clergymen hastened

from other parts to give their services; and the Howard Association, and several sisterhoods nobly devoted themselves to nursing the sick and

dying.

The increasing influx of Chinese into California, into which they were brought by some large commercial companies—really as slaves—excited discontent and alarm. These immigrants did not come to settle permanently in this country and mingle with the rest of the population. They came with their heathen worship, a low grade of morality, few of the men being married, and scarcely any women of decent character coming at all. Leprosy and other disgusting diseases were prevalent among these people. Moreover, the small pittance for which they were willing to work excited the hostility of workmen in many trades, and demagogues formed a political

party opposed to further immigration of Chinese. Laws were passed in California to carry out this view, and a law with a similar object was carried through both Houses of Congress, but was vetoed by President Hayes, as conflicting with the treaty between China and the United States. During the excitement many acts of violence were perpetrated on the Chinese, and in consequence numbers of them left that State and scattered through the country. Commissioners were at once sent to China to negotiate a new treaty allowing our government to prevent the importation of Chinese coolies. This led to modifications agreed upon at Pekin, in 1881.



JAMES G. BLAINE.

In the Republican Convention which assembled at Chicago in June, 1880, a strong effort was made to nominate General Grant for a third term. Three hundred and five delegates, with searcely an exception, voted steadily for him for more than thirty ballots; the opposition divided their votes chiefly between James G. Blaine and John Sherman, till, finding it impossible to elect either, and resolved to exclude Grant, the friends of those candidates united on James A. Garfield, who, on the thirty-sixth ballot, received three hundred and ninety-nine votes. To conciliate the Grant or Stalwart section of the party, the Convention then nominated for Vice-President Chester A. Arthur of New York. The Democratic Convention which met at Cincinnati in June, on the second ballot nominated General W. S. Hancock for President, and W. H. English of Indiana for Vice-President. In the ensuing canvass the Stalwarts showed little interest in the election, and the chances of Garfield's election seemed

very slight, when at last a concert of action was reached. In the Democratic party, especially in New York State, a violent division arose, and in the election in November, that State was carried by the Republicans. This gave Garfield and Arthur two hundred and fourteen votes, and Hancock and English only one hundred and fifty-five votes in the Electoral College, although the popular vote stood 4,442,950 for Garfield; 4,442,635 for Hańcock. The election was remarkably a sectional one, the Southern States going for Hancock, while all the rest, except New Jersey in the East, and Nevada and California on the West, cast their vote for Garfield.

Notwithstanding the peril to the country at the election of Hayes, no law had been passed to avoid similar difficulties, but on Feb. 4, 1881, the



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

Senate adopted a resolution declaring that the President of the Senate had no constitutional right to count the votes of electors for President and Vice-President, so as to determine what votes shall be received and counted, and what votes shall be rejected. The House of Representatives concurred, but no steps were taken to pass a law to meet the case.

The election of James A. Garfield, when the votes came to be counted in Congress, was recognized by both parties, and no question was raised as to the result. The Democrats accepted their defeat, but in the Republican party itself there was a breach between the two sections

which aroused great bitterness of feeling. 'The organization of the Senate was delayed by a contest between the two great bodies in regard to the appointment of the officers of that house. The President's nominations of his cabinet were then confirmed. James G. Blaine became Secretary of State; William Windom of Minnesota, Secretary of the Treasury; William H. Hunt of Louisiana, Secretary of the Navy; Robert F. Lincoln of Illinois, Secretary of War; Wayne McVeagh of Pennsylvania, Attorney-General; Thomas L. James of New York, Postmaster-General; and Samuel J. Kirkwood of Ohio, Secretary of the Interior.

In the appointment of Federal officers in New York, Roscoe Conkling,

Senator from that State, claimed the right to propose nominees, and insisted on filling all positions with persons belonging to the radical or stalwart branch of the party, to the exclusion of those who had supported Blaine or Garfield himself in the last convention. The President declined to yield passively, and, withholding the names proposed by the Senator from New York, sent in to the Senate the name of Judge Robertson for Collector of the Port of New York. Vice-President Arthur, with the New York Senators, remonstrated, but Garfield was firm, and Coukling, failing to defeat the nomination in the Senate, resigned his seat in that body, March 17th, 1881, his course being followed by his associate, Senator Platt. They anticipated being almost certainly/re-elected by the legislature of their State, but found that the opposition was strong and determined. Vice-President Arthur went on from Washington to aid their cause, and a general excitement prevailed throughout the country. The struggle ended in the defeat of Conkling, and the election of Miller and Lapham as Senators from New A somewhat similar struggle in Pennsylvania widened the breach between the two divisions of the Republican party.

This feeling, and the lawlessness of word and thought which grew out of it, soon bore terrible and startling fruit. A man of depraved life, visionary and self-conceited to the verge of insanity, by name Charles J. Guiteau, aspired to be appointed Minister to Austria. Failing to obtain a recognition

of his services, he resolved to make away with the President, so as to raise Mr. Arthur to the Presidency, avowing himself a stalwart of the stalwarts. He more than once laid plans to shoot Mr. Garfield. On the 2d of July, as the President entered the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad station in Washington, in order to take a special train to New England, where he proposed to visit the college at which he had been graduated, Guiteau approached and fired two pistol-shots at him. One ball entered the President's body near the spine, and struck his ribs in its course. Mr. Garfield fell, and was at once placed on a couch and a surgeon summoned. The ball could not be found, and he was removed with the utmost care to the Executive Mansion. Eminent surgeons were called in to save if possible the life of the President, and the country watched with anxiety the bulletins announcing the condition of the illustrious patient. The interest extended to Europe, and expressions of sympathy and hope came from all countries. The case baffled the surgeons, who failed to trace the real course of the ball, or relieve the sufferer. He gradually sank, and as a removal to Long Branch failed to recruit his system, he expired on the night of the 19th of September. The Queen of England, and personages of rank in Europe, sent their words of sympathy to the afflicted widow, and the country, without dis-

tinction of party, united in mourning the untimely fate of their Chief

Magistrate.

President Garfield had performed some official acts after receiving his fatal wound, and signed an important extradition paper on the 10th of July; but at a later period the question arose whether there existed such "inability to discharge the powers and duties" of his office, as caused it to devolve under the Constitution on the Vice-President. The position was a



GARFIELD'S HOME.

delicate one, inasmuch as Mr. Arthur's views had been so much at vuriance with those entertained by the President. He took no steps to claim any right, and the public business was conducted through the Cabinet. On the death of the President, Mr. Arthur became at once President of the United States. On receiving the intelligence, he took the oath of office before a

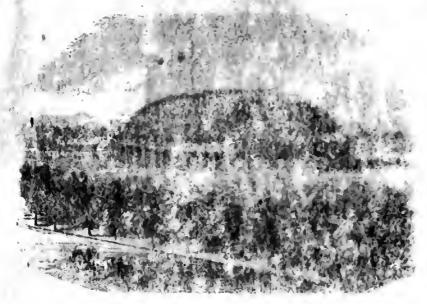




J.a. Garfield

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After the death of Mr. Carried, and continued trial. The feeling against him as he was conversed through the result of the shoot him in the first of the same attempted to shoot him in the first of the same attempted to shoot him in the first of the same attempted to shoot him in the first of the same at t



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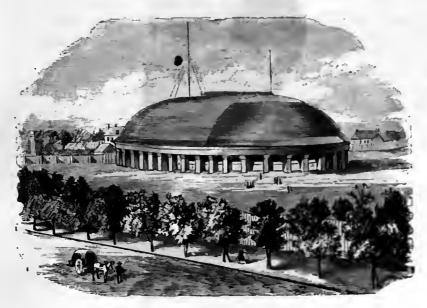
By the consus of 1880 the total population of the United States was ascertained to be 50,155,774. According to the Constitution because necessary to fix the numbers of representatives us the disast, and apportion them among the States according to their population. The Augusteed Them among the States according to their population. The Augusteed February 25, 1882, established the number of manbers of the Incress of Representatives at three hundred and twenty-five. Twenty was States gained in representation, thiriefful trained their old number, and three New England States, Maior, New Limpshire, and Vermont, each limb one and sentative.

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local judge, and proceeding to Washington, renewed it before the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. On assuming the administration of government, he requested the members of the cabinet to retain their positions, but he gradually formed a new one more in harmony with his views, Frederick W. Frelinghuysen of New Jersey being Secretary of State.

After the death of Mr. Garfield, Guiteau was indicted and brought to trial. The feeling against him was so intense, that attempts were made to kill him as he was conveyed through the streets, and a soldier on guard attempted to shoot him in his cell. On the trial, the defence of insanity was interposed, and every latitude given to the accused, whose violence during the trial was extreme. He was convicted, sentenced, and executed.



MORMON TABERNACLE AT SALT LAKE CITY.

By the census of 1880 the total population of the United States was ascertained to be 50,155,774. According to the Constitution it became necessary to fix the numbers of representatives in the House, and apportion them among the States, according to their population. The Act passed February 25, 1882, established the number of members of the House of Representatives at three hundred and twenty-five. Twenty-two States gained in representation, thirteen retained their old number, and three New England States, Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, each lost one representative.

The Territory of Utah had been occupied by the strange religious body, the Mormons, founded by Joseph Smith, a pretended prophet, who was killed in Illinois. His followers, driven from that State and from Missouri,

took refuge in what was then a remote and unattractive part of the country. Here they were left, virtually to form their own government. They attempted to form the State of Deseret, but Congress established the Territory of Utah, and for a time made Brigham Young the head of the Mormon church, governor of the Territory. All members of the legislature were Mormons, and the laws were frequently in defiance of those of the United States. Polygamy was established, and all the leading men had several wives. When the railroads to California brought Utah in the line of travel, and persons who were not Mormons sought to settle in the Territory, the condition of Utah became a question of importance.

Attempts made to put a stop to polygamy were defeated by the Mormons, and in 1882 a new and well-planned effort was made to suppress it. An Act introduced by Senator Edmunds was passed, March 23d, 1882. As the marriages to the second and subsequent wives were performed by a secret rite, it had been cound impossible to prove them, and the guilty escaped. By this Act the cohabiting with several women was made punishable, without proving the subsequent marriages. Moreover, every polygamist, or person favoring polygamy, can be challenged as a juror in any trial for polygamy. Polygamists, and women living with them, are excluded from voting, and from holding any office in the Territory. That the innocent offspring of the marriages contracted previous to the Act might not be made to suffer, all children born of them before January 1, 1883, were to be deemed legitimate. The President was invested with the power of granting an amnesty to offenders who abandoned their former reprehensible mode of life.

One of the projects of the Garfield administration was the calling of a Congress of the different States in North and South America, in order to adjust international questions, and prevent the constant wars and revolutions that are the bane of Spanish America. An invitation to the various Republics to meet in Congress in November, 1882, was sent out by Mr. Blaine after the accession of President Arthur, but it was revoked by Mr. Frelinghuysen, when he assumed the portfolio of the Department of State. Chili had, in a recent war, humbled Bolivia and overrun Peru, which no longer had a recognized government. The action of the American minister in Peru had not been very judicious, and suspicious existed of fraudulent claims to be enforced by the authority of the United States.

This union of the American republics was deemed all the more necessary from the attempt made by De Lesseps, the projector of the Suez Canal, to cut a ship-canal across the Isthmus of Panama. Capital, to a certain extent, was readily subscribed in France, but his project found no favor in the United States, and all parties agreed that no such canal could be permitted, unless it was under the control of our government. De Lesseps

visited the United States, but failed to remove the objections entertained, and to induce American capitalists to favor the undertaking. The whole matter was discussed in diplomatic correspondence with Great Britain, but no concert of action among the leading powers was attained. De Lesseps finally began operations on the isthmus, but new difficulties arose, and owing to the deadly influence of the climate, the loss of life was enormous. The activity of the projectors declined, and the work was really abandoned.

The necessity of a canal at Panama, or elsewhere, as a channel of communication between the Atlantic and Pacific States, diminished as the railroad system of the country developed, and successive lines of road

were completed across the country. The general desire for such lines led Congress to grant to these corporations immense quantities of public lands, and to aid them by other means. The extravagant and lavish grants of the public domain at last excited the attention of the people, and were generally condemned. Steps were then taken to reclaim all lands where the terms of the grant had not been carried out. As the system of railroads in the south-west developed, the advantage of running roads into Mexico became apparent. The government of that republic readily made grants of land and money to favor the plan, and during the administration of President Arthur



DE LESSEPS.

the lines connecting the great cities of the United States and Mexico were rapidly advanced.

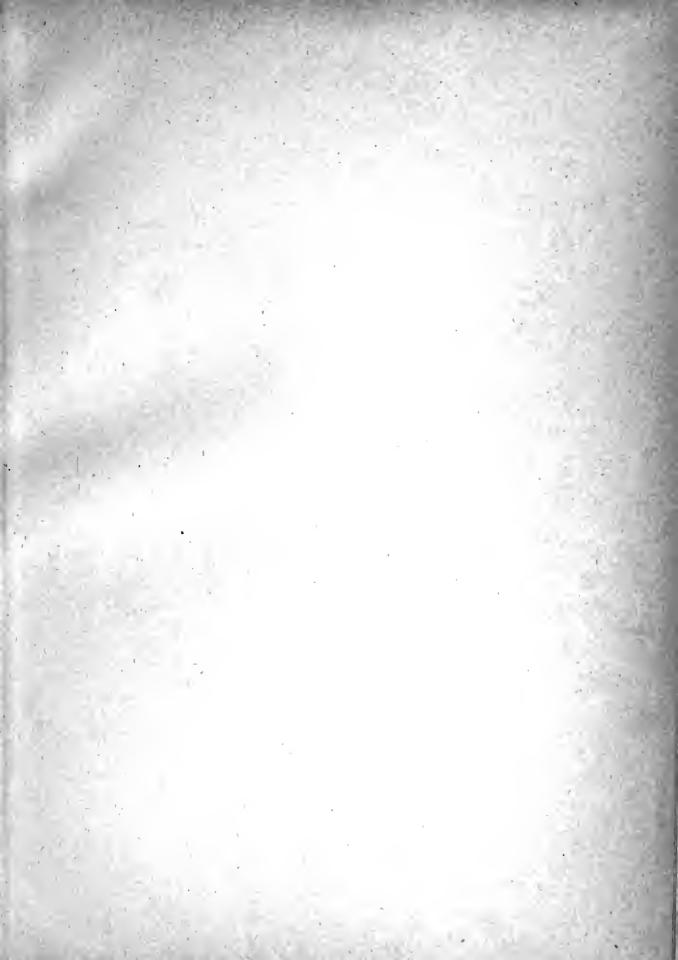
The increasing population of the Territories by immigration from abroad, developing their mineral and agricultural resources, made several of them fit for admission as States. Prominent among these was New Mexico, which was acquired by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848. It had, in 1880, a population of about one hundred and twenty thousand; but the people of New Mexico, although nearly forty years under the American flag, had never been allowed to vote in a Presidential election, or to be represented in Congress. Their prayer for admission was seriously brought before Congress in 1874, but lay dormant for nearly ten years. The Territory of Dakota, which had attained a population of one hundred and seventy-five thousand in 1882, solicited division, and the admission of

the southern and more populous part as a State, the rest to remain as a Territory, under the name of North Dakota. Bills have been introduced for admitting Washington, organized as a Territory in 1853, and Wyoming, organized in 1868. The admission of Utah will undoubtedly be delayed till the question of polygamy is finally settled; and, to render the power of the Mormon church less absolute, it has been proposed to divide the present area among adjoining Territories. The admission of States does not always depend on the actual population, but on other grounds, and is sometimes guided by mere political considerations. In some cases, as in that of Nevada, it has been manifestly premature. Alaska, detached from the rest of the Republic, is only just about to receive an organized Territorial government.

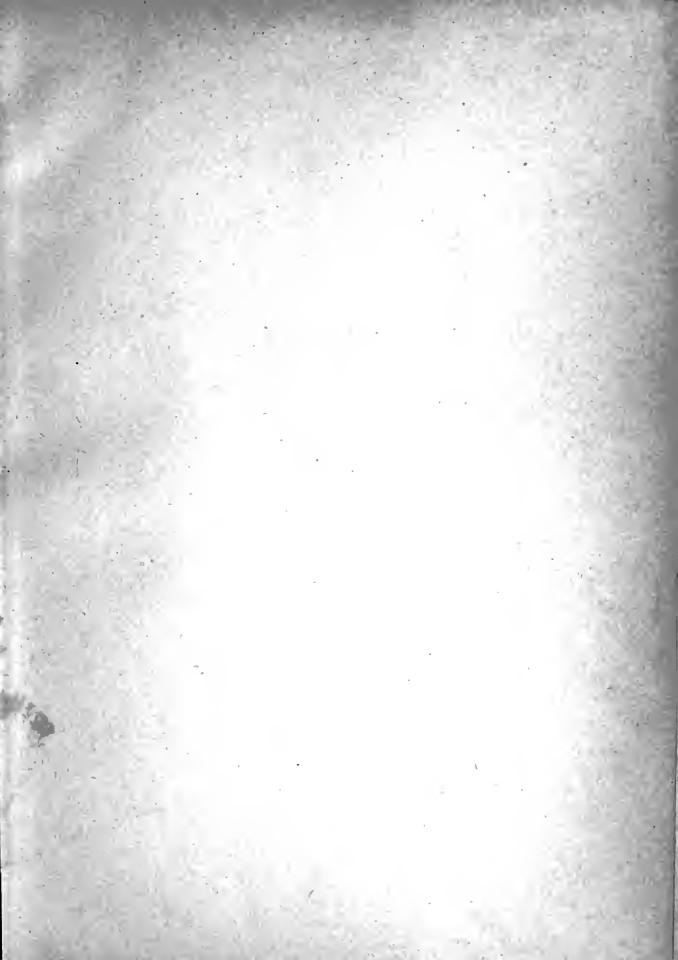
The progress of a great nation from a few straggling settlements of white men on a strange soil, amid distrustful savages, to a degree of power and prosperity almost unequaled in the annals of the past, or in the present condition of the world, has been traced step by step. Now, when every state in the Old World is honeycombed by discontent, with masses of the population, led by men of education and ability, seeking to destroy not only the existing governments, but the whole social fabric; when the most powerful armies and fleets, with all the resources of human science, fail to give security to thrones or governments, the United States, with but the shadow of an army or navy, enjoys profound peace; prosperity is within the reach of all, so that a quarter of a million of discontented Europeans arriving annually, are absorbed into the mass of the people, and without any effort to mould or change them, become in a few years contented and happy citizens, contributing to the general welfare, and attached to the country and the institutions which have proved so beneficent. The constant assimilation of millions of men from countries widely differing in language, political and social training, and the blending of all into one people, with a character, an energy, and an activity of its own, where all trace of origin is rapidly lost, is one of the striking marks of the influence of an overruling Providence in shaping the destinies of America, and should convince us that if true to itself and to Providence, there is a future before it to which the history of mankind affords no parallel.



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